The Nation

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Summary of the News

Negotiations over the Sussex and other vessels recently attacked by submarines in which the United States is interested appear to be taking their normal course. The communication of the German Government in reply to Ambassador Gerard's inquiries has not been published as we write, but it is known from press dispatches that the German Government makes a blanket denial of all responsibility, the sincerity of which, it is said, Mr. Gerard is personally inclined to accept. This course was foreshadowed in a statement made early last week by Dr. Zimmermann, Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, to the Associated Press, that no change had been made in the orders given to submarine commanders not to sink without warning unresisting and unarmed passenger steamers. Against the German denial and Mr. Gerard's faith in it is a mass of evidence which, according to most Washington correspondents, is said to have impressed members of the Administration as pretty well conclusive. The French official report on the Sussex, published in the papers of April 6, would appear to leave no reasonable doubt regarding the matter. The Administration is still awaiting the arrival of the affidavits and other evidence in the case, and has further requested the French Government to furnish its evidence concerning the attack on the French steamer Patria.

While German officials continue to protest their tenderness towards neutrals and their reverence for the rights of humanity, destruction of vessels, neutral and belligerent, presumably by some uncanny form of spontaneous combustion, goes on merrily. In many cases ships reported destroyed or damaged since we wrote last week have been unarmed and unresisting. The following is the list: Fifteen British, three Norwegian, three French, two Spanish, two Danish, one Dutch. A number of lives of neutrals, though not of Americans, have been lost. Protests have been addressed to Germany by both the Norwegian and the Spanish Governments. Dispatches from Copenhagen on Tuesday stated that, according to the Constantinople correspondent of the *Vossische Zeitung*, German submarines of a larger and speedier type than have been previously seen have appeared in the Black Sea, and it is thought, therefore, that it was one of these that torpedoed the Russian hospital ship Portugal.

In the German Reichstag, on April 5, the Chancellor delivered the most comprehensive speech he has made since the beginning of the war. Comment on his remarks, which were particularly interesting when he dealt with the rights of nationalities, will be found in our editorial columns. Mr. Asquith, on Monday, took advantage of a reception to French Senators and Deputies visiting London to reply to various points in the Chancellor's speech, particularly to that which envisaged "a new Belgium" after the war. Mr. Asquith reiterated the Allies' determination to see reëstablished the old Belgium. He also took occasion to point out the confusion of dates involved in the German official contention that submarine warfare was undertaken in retaliation for the British attempt to "starve" German women and children.

Judging from dispatches from Berlin containing comments on the Chancellor's speech, his proposals were vague enough and wide enough to placate all parties, with the exception of the seceding Socialist minority and the solitary stalwart Dr. Liebknecht. Herr Haase, the leader of the Socialist minority, caused an uproar in the Reichstag by reverting to the injustice of the invasion of Belgium, and Dr. Liebknecht has on various occasions been shouted down or refused a hearing by the President when he has attempted to speak on the question of the submarine warfare. Whatever may be regarded as the present policy of the German Admiralty in that respect was endorsed by the Reichstag on April 6, when the vague resolution was adopted to which we alluded last week.

We comment elsewhere on the decision, published on April 8, of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council permitting shippers an appeal from the order of Sir Samuel Evans, President of the British Prize Court.

Dispatches from London of April 9 summarized a report, issued by the Government Committee on the Treatment of British Prisoners of War, on conditions prevailing in the camp at Wittenberg, Germany, during the typhus epidemic last year. The report reveals a state of things so deplorable as to be almost beyond the power of belief if it were not also beyond that of invention, and amplifies Mr. Gerard's report of last November, when he said that he found conditions "even more unfavorable than I have been led to expect."

Another Zeppelin raid was attempted over England immediately following those which we recorded last week. Apparently the raiders were driven off by the anti-aircraft defences, and one Zeppelin is thought to have been hit by gun fire. No military damage was done, according to the British official account, but one child was killed and eight persons injured. The account by the German Admiralty gives the customary details of military destruction.

Successive German assaults around Verdun have led to the capture of Haucourt and the retirement of the French from the salient at Bethincourt. Tuesday's reports told of fierce onslaughts along the entire front from Avocourt to Douaumont, which, however, had been repulsed except in one or two places, where the defenders suffered insignificant loss of ground. In Paris the opinion seems to prevail that this last general assault represents the final effort to take Verdun. In Mesopotamia some progress has been reported by the British force operating to relieve Kut-el-Amara, the Turks having been driven from Umm-el-Henna and from Felahie. Later dispatches state that further progress has been checked for the time being, floods having rendered offensive operations difficult.

The outstanding feature of the news from Mexico during the past week was apparently manufactured in this country. Reports, which had all the appearance of being authoritative and were certainly made to look circumstantial, were spread broadcast that the Administration contemplated withdrawing the punitive expedition from Mexican territory, or at any rate limiting it to a prescribed zone of operations in deference to the wishes of the *de-facto* Government. These reports have since been emphatically denied both at the State Department and by Secretary Baker. General Pershing on April 4 made a report of an engagement with a band of Villistas which took place on April 1 near Aguascalientes, in which thirty of the bandits were killed, and on the same date Carranzista forces under Col. Gonzales were reported to have defeated a band which attacked Parras. Recent reports concerning the coöperation of United States troops and the forces of Carranza have been favorable. Dispatches from General Pershing received at Washington on Monday stated that he had had a very satisfactory conference with General Herrera, and later dispatches told of the offer of full coöperation from General Gutierrez, Military Governor of Chihuahua. The Mexican military authorities have offered the punitive force the use of telegraph and telephone lines. The question of the use of the railway is apparently still somewhat indefinite. Almost the entire United States army is now engaged in the pursuit, on the lines of communication, or in the protection of the border.

In Presidential politics the week has been marked by increasing activity on the part of Colonel Roosevelt and by an incipient "boom" for Mr. Root. The latter came in the form of an address to the party, published in Saturday's papers, signed by seventy prominent Republicans, of whom twenty are delegates to the Convention. Colonel Roosevelt made it definitely known, if such definition was needed, that he was ready to become a candidate for the Republican nomination in an interview with a prospective delegate published on April 6. The gist of the Colonel's remarks on this occasion was that if he was to be President he should expect every American citizen to be "pro-United States" and that he himself was not to be expected to "pussy-foot" on any of the issues he had raised. Senator Warren G. Harding, of Ohio, was on April 7 selected as Temporary Chairman of the Republican National Convention. Mr. George von L. Meyer, Secretary of the Navy in President Taft's Administration, has come out for Roosevelt as the "psychological candidate," as also has Mr. Robert C. Morris, a former supporter of Taft. Mr. Choate, on the other hand, in a statement published on Monday, supported Mr. Root. Barnes, on Monday, denied with an oath a remark attributed to him that he would accept the Colonel if nominated.

The British budget for the forthcoming year was introduced in the House of Commons on April 4. The total expenditure for the year was estimated at £1,825,500,000.

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The Week

Moved by a passionate desire for the truth, Senator Fall, of New Mexico, has just completed a 450-mile automobile trip along the border, and through the medium of a letter to Senator Gallinger now lays the truth before his countrymen. Here are some of the facts for which the Senatorial investigator travelled several thousand miles:

> The report as to Luis Herrera's defection was premature in some respects and yet accurate in others.

That is, Herrera did not exactly revolt from Carranza to Villa, and only Monday Gen. Pershing reported that Herrera had called upon him and discussed joint plans against Villa. But that there is a man named Herrera and another man named Villa, and a place called Chihuahua City, is not to be denied; so the report, though premature, was on the whole accurate, and the authority of the cattleman whom Senator Fall has known for twenty-five years, and who vouched for the accuracy of the report, is thus vindicated. Equally accurate is the report which reached Senator Fall from the Mayor of Laguna, who knows the brother of Luis Herrera, who informed the Mayor of Laguna that Gen. Gavera "was leaving Juarez for some point unknown." The exact bearing of this will be plain to any one who has taken a 450-mile automobile trip along the border and refuses to be deluded by the reports emanating from the Pershings and the Dodds and the Funstons.

> The story of the militia of 1812 is one continuous and unbroken story of disaster, of humiliation and defeat. George Washington said in regard to the Revolutionary War that if he were called on to say whether the militia had been of more help or more injury in the fight he would have to say the latter.—[Senator Borah.

Senator Borah is not, of course, the inventor of this specific argument. Formulated by Mr. Huidekoper, it has been popularized by Gen. Leonard Wood. Indeed, the cowardice and inefficiency of the militia of 1776 and 1812 have become the stock argument for a great regular army. The question might arise whether there is no discernible difference between the farmer riflemen of a hundred and forty years ago and the organized militia of to-day. But since Senator Borah assumes that there is no difference, let it be so. Has it ever occurred to Senator Borah that the militia of the Revolution was not always engaged in running away? Does he recall that the battle of Saratoga, the turning-point of the war, with its preliminary fighting at Oriskany and Bennington, was won by American forces composed perhaps four-fifths of militia?

Does it never occur to Senator Borah that the present war in Europe is largely being fought by men who are virtually a militia? By this time the flower of the standing armies of 1914 has vanished for the greater part, and the remnant is a nucleus and a seasoning for masses of Landwehr and Landsturm. It is true that at one time these men had regular military training, but when men of forty and forty-five are fighting, it means that their active training was as far back as twenty years ago. In Austria, the grandfathers have been sent to the front, and they seem to be doing well. Imagine a contingency in which this country has to bring together an army of four hundred thousand men composed mostly of militia around a kernel of regular troops. That kernel of first-line troops would probably be no smaller, relatively, than is the nucleus of seasoned troops in the European armies of to-day. Adjt.-Gen. McCain's figures for men who in the last ten years have been passed out of the army and the organized militia are nearly 235,000. Add the present militia strength of 120,000, and we have 350,000 men outside of the regular army to-day who have had a fairly good military training.

Germany's official assertion that none of her submarines can have been responsible for the Sussex atrocity makes the case more difficult to handle than would any less absolute denial of guilt. But it leaves unimpaired the duty of the Administration to determine the facts upon the evidence. If that evidence should be—as to the general public it now appears to be—conclusive, it would not be necessary to charge the Imperial Government with lying in order to insist that the deed was Germany's, and that she must be held accountable. Just as with the Arabic, the report of the submarine commander was first declared to be conclusive and afterwards admitted to be wrong, so in this case the German Government, if it thinks fit, can retire from its present position under cover of misreporting, real or pretended, on the part of some naval officer. But be this as it may, it is upon our knowledge, and not upon German assertions, that we must act. And, furthermore, the general outbreak of submarine savagery, directed against all sorts of ships, of neutral as well as of belligerent nationality, which has marked the last few weeks, must count against Germany in the whole issue between that country and our own.

The conference of representatives of the Allies, to be held in Paris next week, will, it is announced, be attended by many distinguished delegates. It is plainly to be made another occasion for demonstrating so unmistakably the unity and coöperation of the Allies as to deprive Berlin of all hope of concluding a separate peace with any one of its enemies. To our mind, however, the most significant thing about the conference is that it is not to concern itself with military affairs, but with joint action in regard to economic and commercial questions. Many Cabinet officers, besides the Premier of Australia, are to attend what is really to be a legislative Parliament of eight nations—Russia, France, England, Italy, Belgium, Servia, Japan, and Portugal—in addition to the great oversea commonwealths of Great Britain. Never before has the world seen so many nations sitting down together to legislate as to their joint interests; and it is the more remarkable because some of the subjects to be considered bear only indirectly upon the prosecution of the war, while others relate to conditions after the close of hostilities.

There is to be, for example, an international patent office—something long desired—which will probably no more lapse when peace returns than should the proposed internationalization of the laws concerning stock companies and business failures. All of these things are plainly desirable, yet it cannot be said that a decision not to undertake them would have any bearing upon the military side of the war. The same is true of the plan to legislate upon the loss and theft of bonds payable to bearer, the establishing of uniform principles to be inscribed in the laws relative to false designation of merchandise, or the reduction of telegraph, telephone, and postal rates between the various countries. The establishment of penny postage between the Allies, highly desirable as it is, will not affect the troops in the trenches, nor particularly hearten them, but it would long remain as a monument to the constructive minds that are seizing this opportunity to obtain international action which could otherwise be had only by separate international congresses. Other subjects, such as the precautionary measures to be taken against the invasion of the Allied countries by German products after the

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war, and the establishment of a joint tariff system against the Central Powers, also suggest that the Allies propose to be allies for a long time after peace is concluded. Now, the hopeful thing about it all is that, consciously or unconsciously, the members of this conference are going to afford an admirable example of how easy it is for the peoples of a large section of the globe to legislate in a Parliament of nations. Who shall say that this gathering may not in the years to come be recognized as the first practical step towards a World Congress?

Perhaps the most remarkable fact in the budget of increased taxation, submitted to Parliament last week by the British Exchequer, is the apparent absence of complaint or protest by the people. What the burden on taxpayers is to be may be judged by the announcement that on incomes up to $5,000, even when actually earned and not derived solely from investments, the tax is now to be 11.2 to 12.4 per cent., while on similar incomes above $5,000 the rate will be no less than 25 per cent. The "supertax" on very large incomes already runs as high as 34 per cent. The increase last year in the income tax produced upwards of $300,000,000 additional revenue, although in operation during only half the fiscal year; from the further increase now proposed the Chancellor of the Exchequer estimates $217,000,000 more. From all the new taxation combined, as fixed in last year's budget, more than $500,000,000 revenue was derived. The entire programme of new taxes in the budget of last week is expected to produce $325,000,000. The new taxes press close on the ordinary life of every English citizen. Not only is the charge for licenses of motor-cars advanced, but a tax is put on matches, cocoa, and coffee. Business profits attributable to the war must now pay 60 per cent. to the Government, instead of 50. A tax is imposed on admission tickets to horse races; and buyers of theatre tickets must pay a tax of 8 per cent. or upwards on them, and even with moving pictures, where the admission fee is as low as twopence, the visitor must pay a half-penny extra. Railway travellers are to be taxed as high as 50 cents per third-class ticket and two dollars per first-class fare.

One point of very considerable interest is that no attempt is made to extend the import tariffs on competitive goods—an initial step towards which seemed to have been taken in the imposition last September of a tariff on motor cars, bicycles, clocks, and watches. So, also, Mr. McKenna repudiates for the time at least the prevalent suggestion of a tax on trade which should injure England's enemies in the war. Behind all these considerations stands the extraordinary fact that, including all the extra taxes levied since the war began, England will now have added more than $900,000,000 to her annual revenue from taxation. This is much more than twice as great as the additional yearly interest charge carried by the war indebtedness. But it makes a striking comparison with the policy of the German Government, which up to this time has been paying the interest on previous war loans with the proceeds of the new ones. The new tax programme throws a still more interesting light on the German Finance Minister's statement of last August to the Reichstag, that whereas England had paid 40 per cent. of its Napoleonic war expenditure out of taxes, it was now paying only 5 per cent. in such a manner, and that "force of circumstances" was compelling the English Government to "balance the extraordinary budget without recourse to new taxation." Its total increase in revenue, enacted or proposed since the war began, will apparently now provide for about 27 per cent. of the sum estimated by Mr. McKenna as England's present annual expenditure for war.

Little attention has been given to the decision of the Judiciary Committee of the British Privy Council to permit an appeal from the findings of a prize court, but one of the American counsel interested declares that it is a "milestone in prize-court procedure in the present war." The point is that it puts international law above English law. In the case in question—relating to the seizure of a cargo of copper—the judge, Sir Samuel Evans, had held, in effect, that an Order in Council was certain to be enforced by a prize court. But that really depends upon the Order conforming to the law of nations. This is the position firmly taken in the American note to the British Government; and now we have that Government itself assenting to it in principle. A way is provided to test an Order in Council by the higher standard of international law. It is a gratifying indication that the best English and American precedents are to be followed.

There are naturally sharp differences of opinion about the Government armor-plant, now practically assured. No one who is not of the Socialistic faith rejoices when the Government goes into additional fields of industry. Since the Senate refused to provide a proper system of cost-keeping for the armor-plant, it is no more likely to be economically run than the Post Office, the navy, or the army. Again, the capacity provided is so great that it may lure Congress to larger naval appropriations in order to keep it busy—Congress never forgets that laborers in Government factories are also voters. None the less, we feel that the undertaking is justified, even though a possible world-disarmament may cause the scrapping of the plant—as we hope it will within a few years. Anything which makes it of less pecuniary interest to any individual or corporation to concern himself or itself with the nation's preparedness for war, is by so much clear gain. The war-traders, the international armor-makers, and gun-makers' Trust have worked havoc enough in the world as it is. If we read the temper of the bulk of the American people aright, they desire to take the private profit out of the making of all implements of war. Finally, the mere threat of a Government plant having moved the armor-makers to offer their wares at a greatly reduced price to the Government, there is plainly a sound economic reason for the plant. It must not be forgotten that Secretary Daniels saved the navy millions of dollars by his threat to go abroad for cheaper armor.

The fight on Saturday in the New York State Republican Committee was a glorious victory, though the inquisitive Peterkins get little satisfaction as to what it was all about. Like Root's manifesto, it is variously interpreted—the aim being to head off Roosevelt, and also to aid him secretly; to prepare the way for Hughes, and also to make him impossible. So far as the Committee contest is concerned, there appears to be no doubt that a sudden and secret movement to depose Chairman Tanner was attempted. It failed unexpectedly, and its promoters went away sorrowful. But just what they were aiming at, and just what their repulse demonstrates, the political commentators still are disputing. A safe presumption is that Senator Wadsworth, and the other Root men who sought to unseat Tanner, would have used their triumph, if they had won it, to strengthen the Root boom, with Roosevelt as its residuary legatee. Hence their defeat is naturally taken as a blow to the Colonel and a gain for Hughes—or for some other man who can unite the party and lead it to success in the election. Certainly, the resolution introduced by Senator Mills, and unanimously adopted by the State Committee, call-

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ing for the nomination of a "tried Republican," does not face towards Oyster Bay. Its chief resident, still an enrolled Progressive, is a tried Republican only in the sense that he has sorely tried the Republican party.

The combination of serious purpose and recreation which goes by the name of the Gary System derives that name, of course, from the celebrated Gary Dinners of some years ago, at which the price of steel billets was fixed amidst a feast of reason and flow of soul. After these original dinners came the Gary dinner of last December, at which Mr. Roosevelt was the guest of honor. There, in the midst of a lively discussion of the influence of Tolstoy on the contemporary American novel, something emerged with regard to the Republican Convention at Chicago next June. The latest historic meal—this time a luncheon—did not have the presence of Judge Gary, but the tradition of business and fun seems to have been observed with greater fidelity than ever, as attested by events now rapidly manifesting themselves. In the vicinity of Wall Street, the rapid multiplication of dining clubs at which million-dollar affairs are discussed and settled shows that the Gary System, while still on trial in the school, has conquered the world of business. It has now entered politics. Instead of the cumbersome formal education of earlier days, by means of agitation, oratory, primaries, conventions, and the like, we now have the equally efficient and much more human method of half-a-dozen men "getting together" around a dinner table.

"A political explosion" the Philadelphia *Record* calls the revelation of an unreported campaign contribution by a brother of Senator Oliver to the man who is now Gov. Brumbaugh. In anticipating his enemies by making the incident public, Brumbaugh offers the explanation that he accepted the thousand dollars as a personal gift. But this view of the matter does not accord very well with his telegram and letter of thanks to Oliver for his "generous help in this fight." One hesitates to link the names of Brumbaugh and Sulzer in a single particular, but it cannot be denied that the Brumbaugh faction is deprived by this development of the same sort of appeal that in the end failed the occupant of the "People's House." Brumbaugh swore that he had received no contributions at all. The Penrose politicians will ask whether his failure to report Mr. Oliver's gift was due to the conspicuousness it would have had if reported alone. The effect of the incident will be to widen and deepen the impression that Brumbaugh is playing politics, and to strengthen Penrose's chances of retaining his hold upon the Pennsylvania machine. It will hardly affect the Governor's relation to the Presidential nomination, as that was, at best, tenuous, but it means that the day of reform for Pennsylvania Republicanism is still in the future.

It has been suggested that Milwaukee's return to Socialism on Tuesday of last week was the result of the choice of a party of dissent by many hyphenates who disapprove the stand of both Republican and Democratic national leaders. There is nothing in the full election figures to bear this out. The city did elect a Socialist Mayor—an ex-restaurant-keeper named Hoan. But it selected all its other officials outside the Socialist ranks, and returned a Council with the same overwhelming non-Socialist majority as the old one. The defeat of Mayor Bading registers the city's disapproval of his failure to carry out the promises on which he was elected. It is still opposed to any return to the two years' régime in which one extravagant Socialist experiment followed another.

Princeton is to be congratulated on the prospect of such a showing in point of literary talent on the part of her undergraduates as is promised by the remarks of Alfred Noyes on the forthcoming volume of verse of which he is the editor. That a book consisting solely of poems by Princeton undergraduates of the present generation should be pronounced by Mr. Noyes as coming up to "a higher standard than is found in similar works edited in England by Gilbert Murray and Quiller-Couch" is indeed gratifying. We should remember, to be sure, that the quasi-periodic books of "Oxford Verse" are made up out of the product of only three or four years' activity of the undergraduate muse at the English university, and to have the work of a whole generation to select from makes a vast difference; yet when we are told that "the entire work rings sound, and the verse is of a strong, clear character," we cannot but feel that the young men at Princeton have given proof of poetic merit far beyond what has been generally suspected.

In Turkey, after next year, all business must be carried on in Turkish. The law to this effect is another sign that the desire of the Young Turks to "Turkify" everything is finding fresh expression under the stimulus of the war. French periodicals which keep close watch on affairs in Syria have been printing quotations from native journals, showing the purpose of certain leaders to impose the Turkish language on all residents, and especially upon the Arabs. They are racially formidable, because they number twelve millions, are homogeneous, and inhabit the vast territory between the Tigris, the Mediterranean, the Suez Canal, and the Indian Ocean. A prominent Turkish writer, the historian Jalal Nouri Bey, has been reported as saying that now is the time to stifle Arabic; another as warning Turkey that the Arabs must be made to forget tongue, history, customs, and traditions, and brought by a Turkish colonization of Irak and Yemen into closer contact with the customs of their conquerors. Meanwhile, the new decree as to business will work havoc in a land where most commerce is in the hands of Levantines and Europeans—and Germans are already pointing out that their own language is not excepted!

If it is true that Japan is behind the present revolutionary movement in China, the methods of the Tokio Government are truly of an Oriental subtlety that passes the comprehension of the Western mind. Premier Okuma is quoted as saying last summer: "This is the opportunity of a thousand years." He was referring to the preoccupation of the Powers with the war in Europe. Facing the opportunity of a thousand years, one would imagine that Japan would have insisted on the full measure of her demands upon China, instead of postponing the proposals embodied in the famous Article V at the behest of Great Britain and our own Government. Apparently, it is Oriental guile which impels Japan to wait till the war in Europe is over and England and this country are free to devote themselves to Far Eastern affairs, before she reasserts her ambitions to subjugate China. As for the revolution in the southern provinces of China, it must be Japan who is the instigator. Until now the people of south China have given no evidence of restlessness under arbitrary rule in Peking. It was not in the southern provinces that the patriotic movement against foreign dominance continued long after the Boxer rebellion. It was not in southern China that Sun Yat-Sen carried on his republican propaganda. It was not the armies of southern China that forced the Manchus from the throne. If, therefore, to-day, southern China is in revolt against Yuan Shi-Kai's betrayal of the republic, it is plain that Japan is behind it all.

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THE CHANCELLOR'S SPEECH.

The speech of the German Chancellor in the Reichstag on Wednesday of last week was in many ways adroit and able. He had a difficult task. He had to address differing parties in the Reichstag so as not to antagonize any. He had to speak to the country in a way to stimulate German pride, yet without assuming too haughty and unyielding an air. He had to give a message to the whole world: to enemies in arms; to neutrals having controversies with Germany. To do all this with entire success was impossible. Yet von Bethmann-Hollweg carried it off with an air of both tact and strength, making a speech which will undoubtedly win favor for his Government at home, even if it fails in satisfying opinion abroad.

In his allusions to peace, the Chancellor said some things which no one will challenge. He affirmed that peace, when it comes, must be lasting, and that Europe should be dedicated in the future, not to war, but to industrial development. In this there is not a trace of the Bernhardi or Crown Prince doctrine that war is the most blessed estate of man. That barbaric delusion has at last been beaten down in Germany. The Chancellor did not attempt to conceal Germany's longing for peace. Concerning the origin of the war, and the reasons for Germany's going into it, he speaks as one still under a national obsession. But it is something to have the assurance from the Chancellor that Germany is not fighting for "space in a foreign country," and hopes to see all Europe become permanently "a land of peaceful labor."

Taking up the question of Poland and Belgium after the war, von Bethmann-Hollweg had something to say about small nationalities. Part of this was good and part very bad. He prefigures a new Polish nation, freed from Russian domination, and also, if he means what he says about the sacred rights of race and language, from German and Austrian control. If Russia must give back Warsaw to the Poles, Germany must give back Posen. This would be a result of the war which nobody foresaw. But when the Chancellor speaks of the "new Belgium" he is disappointing. He gives us to understand that Germany will evacuate Belgian territory, but only under conditions which, it is evident, the Allies would concede only if they were at the end of their resources. And von Bethmann-Hollweg's reference to the "oppressed" Flemings, who must somehow be set off by themselves in the course of a sort of partition of Belgium, is in the worst style of Bismarck, threatening a republican agitation in Italy. The net result of all that the Chancellor said about possible terms of peace is to reinforce the belief that peace is not yet in sight. The minds of the belligerents are still too far apart. The German Chancellor scores a neat debating point on Mr. Asquith's unhappy phrase about crushing "Prussian militarism," just as the British Prime Minister scored when he declared that he was ready to listen to any reasonable peace-offers from Germany; but, meanwhile, the war goes on.

How much light does the Chancellor's speech throw upon the strained relations between Germany and the United States? Very little. Von Bethmann-Hollweg used his heavy artillery upon the "silly" assertion that Germany might turn her arms against America, or attack Canada. This latter, we know of nobody of consequence in this country who has suggested, unless it be Ambassador Bernstorff. It is not yet forgotten that he once pointed to the possibility that Canada, having voluntarily entered the war, might be attacked by Germany without violating the Monroe Doctrine. Perhaps this was the "silliest invention" to which the Chancellor referred. For the rest, his assurances to the United States on this point are both in bad taste—as being in an unconsciously patronizing tone—and quite beside the issue. Americans are not at present so much concerned with the making of German promises as with their value when made. After the cool violation of Germany's pledge to Belgium, which the same Chancellor in the same Reichstag admitted to be in disregard of international law, it is not very flattering to the intelligence of neutrals to make them new pledges of the kind.

All this, however, is not to the point of our actual differences with Germany. What had the Chancellor to say about German submarine warfare, and about the official undertaking of his Government, under pressure from the United States, not to torpedo passenger ships without warning? Nothing that was satisfactory, it must be admitted. On this subject von Bethmann-Hollweg was ambiguous, not to say two-faced. Turning to the Tirpitz party, he harped upon England's wicked policy of starvation—which at the same time he said amounted to nothing—and affirmed that Germany would not allow any one to wrest from her hands her "arms of defence"—that is, the submarines. Yet they would be used, he said, as if with an eye on the gallery where Ambassador Gerard sat, with "respect for the legitimate rights of neutral trade and commerce." This may mean much or nothing. All depends upon the concrete answer which Germany makes to the questions of the United States Government. It is one thing for the Chancellor to save his face by a non-committal speech in the Reichstag. But he will have to be very explicit when he sits down to answer the definite inquiry whether his Government intends to keep faith with the United States.

CANADA'S MUNITIONS SCANDAL.

It is not probable that the position of the Borden Government in Canada will be at once shaken by the revelations just made of frauds in the letting of munitions contracts. But a public indignation has been roused which may well affect the political situation after the war. The scandal is one of which there have long been premonitions. For weeks the Liberals in Ottawa have been hinting at graft and inefficiency in the work of the Shell Committee, and Laurier some time ago called for an investigation. The speech of Mr. Kyte in the Commons, with its direct accusation that members of the Shell Committee had let the Hon. J. W. Allison, a friend of Minister of Militia Hughes, rob the Treasury of more than a million on some large fuse contracts, gave such force to Laurier's demand that some concession to it could no longer be avoided. The Government has already appointed two eminent jurists a Royal Commission on the fuse-contract charges. The Liberals, backed by some public sentiment, were bent on a probing of all other contracts, but this was denied by a close vote. The great object of Canadians is doubtless to clean up everything connected with the war contracts with no thought of partisanship.

Canadian resentment centres less on the charge that one public servant made a great "rake-off" than on the suspicion that Hughes and the Shell Committee have been grossly careless in all their work of supplying the Canadian forces. No one questions the integrity of Gen. Hughes. But he was aware that Canada demanded promptness and trustworthiness in the furnishing of munitions to Great Britain. He knew that large numbers of shells would be ready for shipment as soon as fuses could be supplied. It was imperative that contracts be given to firms that could supply fuses first; and there were both Canadian and American bidders. Yet Allison's recommendations as to these

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contracts, without study by Hughes or Gen. Bertram, chairman of the Shell Committee, received their endorsement. By virtue of it they quickly went through. There is now good evidence that the companies to which Allison recommended the contracts be given were two "mushroom" American concerns, with capitalization of a few thousands each, and no plants. The price for the fuses was high, because time was the essence of the contract—so high that large profits were inevitable. The "mushroom" companies had arranged, it is charged, to pay Allison well for his work in getting them the order; and for the most part the fuses are not yet supplied. How could Hughes and Bertram trust the mere word of a friend in so important a matter? Did they not realize that their endorsement was almost final? Canada is wondering what other negligence these men were guilty of in matters affecting the safety of her troops.

It contributes to the sensitiveness of the Dominion that the Empire has trusted it implicitly in the purchase of supplies within its borders. At an early date the British Government announced that it would communicate all requirements for munitions in Canada to the Minister of Militia at Ottawa. Minister Hughes at once constituted the Shell Committee, under Gen. Bertram, to assist him. Upon it are representatives of all the Canadian manufacturing interests, and its functions are to advise the Cabinet as to the contracts it shall let in behalf of Great Britain. All bids go to Hughes; they are examined and decided upon by the Shell Committee; and when the contracts are once let, the Government at Ottawa assumes the responsibility of inspecting the munitions. But Canada herself must chiefly suffer from delinquencies of the Shell Committee, for many supplies go first to her own contingents. It was looked upon as inevitable that at the beginning there should be delays and such petty graft as that discovered in the case of some shoe contractors. But at this date the official machinery should be running smoothly. Every fifth or sixth home in Canada has sent its representative to the front, and the population will deal sternly with those found at fault. Premier Borden's resolute stand against a comprehensive inquiry indicates his confidence that the alleged grafting was on a small scale; but men like Kyte will be sure to uncover other abuses if they exist.

To the outsider the regrettable fact is that a devotion so splendid as Canada's should be marred in any way. Six weeks after the declaration of war 30,000 young Canadians were embarked at Montreal for service in Europe. Since then the Dominion has brought its quota up to 300,000 men, more than one-third of whom are now in Great Britain or France. The war taxes have borne heavily upon a country new and none too prosperous, but there have been no complaints; and the Dominion has financed its efforts mainly by domestic loans. Its munitions factories were early brought into being, and are a valuable source of supplies to the Allies. But that the record would have blots might have been predicted by any one familiar with the recent history of Canada. Much as American politics are affected by grafting, the story of corruption across the border before 1914 was much worse. Canada's municipal, provincial, and even federal affairs were marked by a long s ccession of scandals. It was certain that in war-time this taint would appear in a form still more disgusting.

A BAD YEAR FOR FAVORITE SONS.

Interest in William Alden Smith's total defeat and La Follette's partial defeat last week did not lie in the failure of their national ambitions, but in the demonstration that they could not hold even the allegiance of their States. Is the old institution of the Favorite Son completely out of fashion? La Follette's star has been sinking for several years, and Wisconsin's dislike of him and of his régime has been rising. The State no longer finds anything magnetic in his mixture of sincerity, opportunism, radicalism, and freakishness. Yet he plainly expected a larger vote endorsing his claim to be considered a national figure—a fuller complimentary backing for the Presidency. Senator Smith is more or less of a joke; but he made a formal campaign for State delegates. In former years, in addition to their regular following, both these men would have found many more to vote for them as a matter of State pride. But now the position of the Favorite Son is shaken. Men like Cummins are running against unknowns like Estabrook or Webster, and doing little more than halve the vote. Even Illinois, with her Sherman, and Indiana, with her Fairbanks, are really thinking of Hughes and Roosevelt.

To argue too much from this would be wrong in the light of the immemorial fickleness of the States towards their "sons." But in general, to be a Favorite Son really meant something in the days before 1900. Every considerable State was expected to produce one for each party some time in each generation, and every State tried to live up to the expectation. There were some inspiring examples of State devotion. Thus in the Democratic Convention of 1892 Iowa stubbornly stuck by Boies till all hope was gone; and Maryland as stoutly by Gorman. In 1896 Pennsylvania still cast her ballot resolutely for Pattison after most of her Eastern sisters, disgusted that the fight had narrowed down to two silver men, Bland and Bryan, had ostentatiously abstained from balloting. In the same year the Republicans saw a compact body of New Yorkers stand with entire loyalty behind Levi P. Morton, and of Iowans behind Allison. There were, of course, examples of State indifference to a nominal candidate, of unity marred by factional discord, and of treachery. Cameron, as the Favorite Son of Pennsylvania; Logan and Stevenson, of Illinois, and, above all, Sherman, of Ohio, could have told of ambitions wounded in the house of those who should have been friends. Ex-Senator Foraker has just given in his reminiscences a final explanation of the impossibility of holding the instructed Ohio delegation behind Sherman in 1892, asserting that without his influence the Blaine sentiment would have destroyed the Sherman following from Ohio at the start. But there were few Conventions between the Civil and Spanish-American Wars in which Favorite Sons did not play their part. Bryce noticed them and the "dark horses" as characteristic and inevitable figures.

One reason why Cummins and Burton, Fairbanks and Borah and Sherman, do not carry such an appeal in their own States as men of like eminence once would have done, is that for twenty years their party has accustomed itself to look to an outstanding personality for leadership. McKinley's nomination in 1896 was foregone, taking place on the first ballot. His second nomination, that of Roosevelt to succeed himself, and that of Taft were similarly assured; and the battle of 1912 was no place for small men. The rank and file of the Republicans have lost the old sentimental feeling about honoring some local dignitary. Years have taught the voter a new political sagacity, and his first touchstone in examining aspirants is national availability. And he is confirmed in this attitude by a sense that the growth of independent voting puts a higher demand upon a candidate. A generation ago a party's strength could be held together behind a little-known man by the sheer

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force of the party's name and watchwords. But now there are hosts who care little for the words Republican and Democratic. Finally, the new methods of choosing delegates make for early concentration of attention on the larger figures; and they thwart the old opportunity to build up a personal machine to voice the State's wishes. Efforts were widely made at the beginning of the year to place the names of Hughes and Roosevelt on primary ballots, showing that the primary stirred men to plan far ahead. And in few States is it now possible for a few men to instruct delegates as they please, as Hanna instructed them for McKinley or Quay for himself.

Under certain conditions, it is easy to believe that the Favorite Son would reappear in all his glory. We had him in the last Democratic Convention in Marshall, and perhaps Harmon. If we came to another dead level where there was as little to choose between candidates as between the men who entered most Democratic Conventions before the emergence of Cleveland, or some Republican Conventions at the same times, we might again see much made of those who were prominent New Yorkers or Ohioans, rather than prominent Americans. Between the two chief Republican leaders of this year it may seem expedient to nominate some Favorite Son. But there is a good deal of hope that the country has really outgrown the parochialism that was responsible for much of the old condition of affairs. As we have grown in wealth, population, and international outlook, we have grown in the emphasis put everywhere upon national as opposed to State affairs. It is proper that voters should rebel when asked to seal with their approval the Presidential aspirations of men like Smith or La Follette or Sherman, simply because such men are their more or less distant neighbors; and it is a hopeful sign to find them doing so.

THE PASSING OF THE CORRESPONDENT.

The death of George W. Smalley, indubitably the best-known of the long list of American correspondents in London, recalls the changes which time has made in the status of the correspondent at our own and at foreign capitals. If it was true that Mr. Smalley had outlived his reputation, the fault was by no means altogether his own. Many causes have conspired to make seemingly impossible to-day the influence once wielded by men like Mr. Smalley. First of all, there is, of course, the free use of the cable. Its lowered rates have led managing editors and press associations to cover the foreign field so freely as to cut the ground out from under the feet of any who would send news-letters. True, Mr. Smalley used to send a notable Sunday cablegram to the New York *Tribune*, but it was, after all, the mail-bag that brought to New York the letters which made his reputation.

That his own writing suffered in the end by the dogmatic manner which grew upon Mr. Smalley with years, is true. But more important by far was the lowered tone of our American press, which began to ask years ago for more "human-interest" stories, to use a journalistic phrase that covers a multitude of sins. The gossip of the back-stairs of nobility and royalty, the marriage of a peer to an American or a chorus-girl, counted more than columns of brilliant analysis of the European situation, or of news of the plans of the Conservatives, or even than a delightful letter upon the latest literary and artistic developments. The era of large circulations or of changing circulations set in simultaneously with a lowering of the cable-tolls. Had Mr. Smalley's recent letters to the *Tribune* had all the fire and charm of style of his best days, they would have been strangely out of place in the modern *Tribune*. So the fact remains that there are but a handful of American newspapers which, prior to the war, were printing serious and thoughtful letters from the various European capitals. The tendency was more and more to rely upon the press associations for the news of Paris, Vienna, and Rome, while writers eager to win reputations by letters from abroad were inclined to turn, like Price Collier, to the magazines.

Similarly, on this side of the water, it is undeniable that the power and the prominence of the Washington correspondent have both waned. The newspapers still maintain their Washington offices, but few permit their representatives to use the personal pronoun or to express their own views. They are special reporters, who veil their own opinions and those of the public men from whom they cull their news under the familiar "it is said in high circles," or "believed by a certain authority." As the rigid colorlessness of the Associated Press reports makes impossible the development of any individual style, so the average Washington correspondent has no incentive to shine by the weight of his personal authority or the merit of his style. His function is chiefly to "beat" the press associations, and to send good "feature" matter. Again, the large offices have so many correspondents that the individuality of any one writer is subordinated to the collective individuality.

Yet it is not at all impossible that there could be a revival of the former prestige of the Washington correspondent, if a newspaper should seriously undertake to restore it. Should the New York *Times*, for instance, induce Mr. McAneny, with his extraordinary background of administrative experience, to write from Washington, there can be no question that his letters would be read with profoundest interest and carry great weight. So it is easy to think of men who might, to some extent at least, revive the prestige of the London correspondent, but they would have to be men not with reputations to make, but with established prominence in journalism or politics. Even then they would have to be "played up," for they would suffer from the modern custom of getting special correspondence from men of prominence in any given emergency. If there is a calamity to-day, or some great happening, we ask G. B. Shaw or Arnold Bennett or Rudyard Kipling to tell us what to think about it.

The very fact that the opinions of prominent men are sought after by the press in an emergency shows clearly that the public has not lost its interest in the views of those who, for one reason or another, are supposed to speak with authority. So does the eagerness with which the public reads the letters to the editor which are coming more and more to be features of all newspapers that desire to give both sides of every question. Hence we have seen the displaying of letters to the editor on editorial pages, or in large type—when the signature is one to count—besides numerous other evidences that there is no waning of interest in the expression of a personal point of view. All of this gives ground for hope that, after the war, when there will be such widespread reorganization to record everywhere, there may be a reversion towards the foreign correspondent of authority. But for one class of correspondent the outlook seems hopeless. The development of modern warfare, the immensity of the terrain to be covered, together with the complete censorship, give little ground for the belief that there will be a return to the days of "Bull Run" Russell, of Archibald Forbes, and of Bennet Burleigh.

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Foreign Correspondence

THE FUTURE OF THE ANGLO-JAPANESE TREATY.

By YONE NOGUCHI.

TOKIO, March 17.

While we are fulfilling as best we can under the circumstances our duty towards the Allies, it is a fact quite plain to be seen that we, at least some of us, are not without sympathy for Germany; that sympathy, while not condoning the German brutality and impatience defying humanity and law, is for her bravery in action, resulting from the consciousness of being in a life-and-death struggle. I believe that, if such a disloyal thought be entertained by some of us, we are not necessarily to be accused of vicious wickedness. Let me dare say that Japan stands in a rather safe place at present, where no immediate serious consequences of the war will be felt. With such a blessing of the situation, we Japanese can practice an art of criticism even with an accompaniment of wine and smoke, as if we knew nothing about the fact of our being a belligerent. If I say that we used to look upon Germany with curiosity, that was, for one reason, from our sympathetic admiration of her national attempt to overtake what she lost by her delay in arriving as a world Power; we felt encouraged and instigated by a living object lesson. In this respect, a still greater service, I believe, was rendered by America. The consolidation of the German Empire helped, I think, to confirm us in our belief in the militarism which endorsed our Shintoism in the point of emperor worship; when Japan, internationally young and undeveloped in a thousand ways, thought that scientific study should be put before the culture of personality, we sent many hundred students to Germany, officially or otherwise. Although many of them simply returned after learning how to drink beer or dance a waltz, they also helped to popularize the admiration of Germany in Japan. And now when we hear an outspoken German sympathy in many quarters, particularly at this present moment when we are fighting with Germany as a belligerent, I wonder if it is not a boldly expressed suggestion of the somehow impaired dignity of England, and again if it is not our dissatisfaction, or at least our doubt, of the Anglo-Japanese treaty, seen through an ironical effectiveness.

When Japan, who had been shut up too long in an atmosphere where the Eastern progress of Oriental civilization had reached its final stop, awoke one day of a half-century ago to the way by which a different, indeed a far more brilliant, civilization could be freely absorbed, her prominent characteristic of adaptability (some Western critic calls it by the prosaic name of imitativeness) natural to mixed blood like hers, expressed its own versatility; in fact, our insatiable curiosity towards the Western civilization, at least in the past years, was something like that of a child or savage whose desire was suddenly opened to the luxuries. Again like the child or the savage, we lost in this new adventure our own sense of morality and pride of personality that we had created with the patience of a thousand years of insular life. I confess that my sometimes pessimistic mind goes so far as to question the real balance of value which we can draw from our indiscriminate adoption of Western civilization. When we desired earnestly to have some strong force to teach us an important sense of proportion, and again to teach us how to regain the true morality which we had lost for some years, the Anglo-Japanese treaty happened to come into existence. Putting aside now its worth as seen through international politics, being more occupied with the question of spiritual tendencies, I expected a great deal from it, because the puritanism of the English civilization that was highly ethical, aiming at the culture of personality, would be, I thought, an excellent example to adopt or imitate, if possible, when we should fully realize the imminent necessity of a rearrangement of ourselves. Again let me say that I welcomed the Anglo-Japanese treaty, as I thought that Japan would be influenced by the calm consciousness of the English mind, which never departs from the sense of justice.

When I see that this Anglo-Japanese treaty still remains a mere piece of composition on paper, an agreement between two Governments of West and East, but does not represent the mutual understanding of one race with another, I have no hesitation in declaring it a failure. I myself, who had an almost appalling experience of how little English people at home did know of Japan, have no right certainly to accuse the Japanese when they do not know where the English Embassy is situated, or who is the present Ambassador. Indeed, I wonder if one of ten Japanese who live in Tokio could answer the above questions; it may be taken as evidence that our personal rapprochement has never gone one step further than it was ten or fifteen years ago. While the treaty satisfied our national vanity, our Japanese minds, I think, were not composed enough, reflective enough, to learn the spiritual lesson from England which, if it had been properly studied, would have well compensated any physical sacrifice we were obliged to pay out as our duty towards the treaty. There are some Japanese, I dare say, whose Germanesque patriotism or chauvinistic energy makes them, off-hand, express themselves about the English selfishness in China.

To speak bluntly, the English people, although I admit their gentlemanly fairness or honesty at home, are often too busy in pressing a conqueror's right, particularly in the East; their proud coldness in conduct (I do not mean to doubt their sense of justice), backed by practical strength, makes even their selfishness appear as if executing the white nation's responsibility. Although it is not confined to Englishmen, I was surprised to see such a changed attitude of the white people at Suez, where they had to cast off their barbarous robe under which they had been enjoying a holiday-making; I hardly think that those west and east of the Suez Canal are the same people. I was pleased to think that since English people respectfully recognized Japan in the Anglo-Japanese treaty, they would be wise to modify their conduct in the East in general; I even declared that it should be the fundamental test of the success or failure of that treaty. But I have many instances to prove its failure. And when the war is over, and the world's attention will be again turned to Eastern affairs, it is my own opinion that only the Western nation who will forget her Western prejudices against the East, and stretch out her arms of humble love, shall be a true conqueror of our part of the world. Who will be the winners of this Oriental race? I can say that Germany, if she will learn the deep bitterness of wisdom from the war, would have more chances than any other country.

WAR'S TIME-LIMIT—THE NEW IRREPRESSIBLE CONFLICT.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, March 25.

"Without boasting, without illusion, and without vain optimism, it is permitted to discern the end of this horrible war."

These are words of Finance Minister Ribot on the 17th of March, after he had explained to Parliament the situation of France in meeting the expenses of war. Thus for the first time a responsible spokesman of France goes beyond the routine of war, the daily deadly struggle hand to hand, and says that a time-limit to the war is within sight. To this portentous saying he led up by words of present emotion:

"At this hour I consider—and the whole Government considers—that what is most important, what is more important than all else, is to maintain confidence in the country and do nothing that may lessen it or trouble it. We are at a decisive hour. The whole world is looking on at what is passing around Verdun. Its defence will be esteemed by history one of the greatest things which have passed to our country's honor."

With the world persuaded that France has no limit to her defence of herself, and when it has pierced German heads that this struggle for her existence will go on for ever and for ever no matter what their successes here and their successes there, then the time-limit is near. Minister Ribot wound up his appeal to Parliament, that speak-meeting where silence in these days is oftenest golden:

"Gentlemen, let us do nothing that can lessen either the confidence of our admirable soldiers in chiefs who are worthy to lead them to victory or the confidence of the country. Let us try to remain calm and keep cool heads, as the country itself does. We shall do so for victory's sake and also for the sake of Parliamentary rule."

This is not an anti-climax. Parliamentary rule in France, imperfect as it may be, represents to-day the struggle for the liberty of peoples against despotic and organized aggression. This is the Kulturkampf of Humanity against military and political empire. And that is why the time-limit of war with victory must mark the beginning of another struggle of the peoples for liberty—during peace.

This is to be the new irrepressible conflict. It was not to the point which the French Minister was making; but it has been declared by the English Finance Minister, by the Australian Premier in the name of British dominions overseas, by Italians, and by competent Frenchmen. It is not too soon for America to pay attention, for the conflict concerns her too.

It is hard to define this new conflict in its extent or duration. Those who give it a name speak of it vaguely as an "economic war" destined to carry on in other fields the

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struggle against Germany when military war is over.

Now, if such a conflict were deliberate, it might be cut short by a German half-victory ending actual war, or a settlement of it might be patched up in certain international negotiations of peace after war. But it is not deliberate and it is inevitable. It is not the concoction of wiseacres overreaching themselves in the "efficiency" of their "organization" as has been done in this military war. Such a conflict cannot be averted because it is spontaneous, from a universal mental vision that rouses directly popular feeling and pushes to collective action. The people's will thus roused will act against any amount of constraint from without.

This is why the conflict is irrepressible, as Seward saw clearly of our American division of minds concerning slavery. If the word seems too despairing, it may be named from another prophet of those troublous times—the Impending Crisis. In more hopeful terms, it may be the one-sided beginning of President Eliot's desired Federation of Europe. The Allies have stood together against the German organization of guns and soldiers and they are going to stand together against the equally aggressive organization of German industry and trade.

In making up the probabilities of a human movement like this, we must take it at its lowest terms, discounting also union and perseverance. A corresponding movement on the German side is already shaping itself into a Zollverein — one of those customs unions which seek mutual protection by raising artificial barriers for the exclusion of others. To Englishmen schooled by Manchester, the mere mention of possibility of such a thing is blasphemy. For them, the lowest terms of economic union of the present Allies at the war-end must be: None of them shall make a commercial treaty with Germany without the knowledge, and if possible the consent, of the others.

This is enough to consider to-day—and it is a great deal. England drew her skirts aside from France after the defeat of 1870 and left her to fight her own economic battles with conquering Germany. The result was that the Treaty of Frankfort imposed on France a servitude of commercial reciprocity which steadily developed into economic vassalage towards Germany until the beginning of this war. The growing control which Germans were acquiring over commerce and finance in British possessions and in England itself shows the result of their practice of reciprocity towards free trade. That they are alive to the dangers of the coming conflict is also shown by the demand of German industrial and commercial bodies that no treaty shall be made which does not guarantee them the "most-favored-nation treatment."

It is not the place here to go into arid and technical considerations of what has come to be so complicated a department of international law and treaty-making. Americans have not distinguished themselves in it, perhaps because they never study or pay attention to it until it is too late.

A quarter of a century ago those of us who had to write of such matters could get on by having clear ideas of two customs tariffs only—the "autonomous" tariff, expressed in the letter of the national law, and the "conventional" tariff, gnaranteed by special agreement with another nation. Now, there are perhaps a baker's dozen of varying tariffs—general, maximum, intermediate and minimum, preferential and inter-dominion (for colonies), assimilations, consolidation, German "specifications," not counting our own customs relations with Porto Rico and the Philippines—and the peculiar "John Quincy Adams interpretation" of the most-favored nation clause! Here and now it is enough to warn Americans that they must be ready—when this weary war is over—to exercise their patience in endless commercial treaty-making.

At the beginning of the year the venerable Paul Leroy-Beaulieu said: "Commercial relations will begin with Germany before personal associations become possible." Germany, complaining that she was economically encircled, should have thought of all this before she set the world in permanent battle array against her.

A Liberal Education

A PLAN FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF "SMATTERING" IN COLLEGES.

By GUSTAV POLLAK.

Few subjects are more frequently discussed in academic circles than the apparent impossibility of interesting the average undergraduate in subjects beyond the range of his prescribed studies. For all the purposes of general culture—the much-abused word has not wholly lost its native significance—the undergraduate leaves his *alma mater* very much as he entered it. The instruction which he has not sought the college has not attempted to impart. He feels none of that broad interest in the important concerns of mankind which marks the educated man. Clear-sighted instructors may daily deplore the narrow intellectual outlook of their students, but what can the college do to broaden it? The teacher is limited to his schedule, and the student thinks he has no time for anything beyond his daily grind. At all events, he is indifferent to everything else, sporting matters alone excepted. Not many young men, indeed, glance even at the daily paper regularly. And so the college goes on turning out graduates, year after year, who cannot take part in the conversation of educated persons. They know little of the concerns of the present day, and the past bears no message to them. They have heard of but few of its great men, and only of such historic events and scientific or literary achievements as were directly connected with the subjects of their college studies.

Now, the question arises, if we have to accept the general ignorance of the undergraduate as an established fact, is it not the duty of the college to try to discover a remedy? Perhaps a partial remedy at least may be found.

I have had occasion, in conversation with college professors and others, to refer briefly to a plan for a series of talks by competent authorities, extending over the entire four years' course of the undergraduate, the aim of which would be to supply miscellaneous but systematic information on a vast range of those subjects of which every educated person ought to know something. The plan having met with encouragement on the part of those to whom I outlined it, I now venture to speak of it publicly through the columns of the *Nation*. And, first of all, I wish to say emphatically that I do not propose a revolutionary change in the college curriculum. Nothing is further from my thought than a desire to add to the numberless schemes for the remodelling of the existing order that unsettle life in every direction. Rather, I should hope that some such course as that which I suggest would lead students back to the tried ways of their ancestors, to their love of good books, their veneration for great men and great deeds.

Briefly speaking, I propose that the teaching staff of the larger universities and colleges provide for the undergraduate a series of 120 talks on the principal branches of human knowledge, these talks to be distributed equally over the four years of the college course, that is to say, to be given for one hour weekly during every college year. To some of the subjects may be assigned but two or three hours altogether; others, with wider ramifications, would require six hours and perhaps more, the whole course being arranged on a basis which allows four hours to each of thirty different subjects. Such an arrangement, in the hands of skilful lecturers, would suffice for an outline of each special subject, an explanation of its importance in the history of mankind, a succinct account of the achievements of the masters, and a mention of the outstanding epochs associated with their names. In a general way, the whole might be termed a bird's-eye view of the characteristics of the world's greatest men. This would include, say, about six hundred names. Any one who has looked intelligently into the matter will find that something like this is the number of individuals who have achieved, and are likely to retain, international fame—in other words, of the men and women with whose achievements educated Americans, Englishmen, Germans, Frenchmen, etc., are alike supposed to have some familiarity. To resort once more to plain figures, a talk concerning five of such celebrities once a week during each college year would enable the undergraduate to gain some knowledge of the six hundred of the world's greatest men and women. Hundreds of lesser lights, less brilliant but still great, would follow in the wake of the greatest. Whatever objections there may be to what on its surface seems a plea for superficiality, there can be no doubt that such a course would arouse an interest the lack of which is now so sorely felt. Human nature must, indeed, have sadly changed if an appeal of this sort were wholly wasted. "The search after the great men is the dream of youth," says Emerson. Let us see by concrete examples what might be done towards giving students a glimpse of the mass of important human concerns.

I take my subjects at random, without aiming at completeness or order of importance,

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and shall limit myself to the merest hints, under one or two heads. I am aware that, by including such branches of knowledge as modern history, literature, and the natural sciences, I seem to duplicate some of the features of the plan of instruction followed in all the colleges, but I think it will be conceded that the extension which I propose can only further the purposes of the present instruction in any one subject. The course is supposed to deal with the following subjects:

Mathematics (including astronomy), chemistry, geographical discoveries and exploration, music, anthropology and ethnology, development of railways and transportation, engineering, pedagogy, zoölogy and botany, biology, geology, physical geography, bacteriology, warfare and military history, industrial progress, political economy, church history and Bible criticism, jurisprudence, oratory, physics, medicine (including anatomy and physiology), comparative literature (Greek, Roman, Oriental, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Scandinavian, Slavic, etc.), philosophy, archæology, comparative philology, modern history from the time of the French Revolution, art (painting, sculpture, architecture, etching, etc.). Opinions will, of course, differ as to the hours to be allotted to any particular subject, but it will be evident that six hours and more could profitably be assigned to modern history, comparative literature, art, and some of the comprehensive scientific subjects.

Events, epochs, literary, scientific, and artistic currents, the march of human progress in every field of activity, all these naturally group themselves around individuals. There is scope for the exercise of illuminating ingenuity in the briefest remarks on great men. A mere allusion will suffice the enthusiastic lecturer for bringing his subject vividly before his audience. The discursive method, rightly employed, may become the most incisive in its effect. Emerson sketches in one sentence the chief characteristic of each of seven men of science: "Each man is, by secret liking, connected with some district of nature, whose agent and interpreter he is, as Linnæus, of plants; Huber, of bees; Fries, of lichens; Van Mons, of pears; Dalton, of atomic forms; Euclid, of lines; Newton, of fluxions." Every great man has his fascination for some youthful student, and all will absorb more naturally that which is not placed before them as part of a daily routine. They will listen one week to the story of the natural phenomena of physics, and names like Galvani, Volta, Davy, Joule, Faraday, Gauss, Rumford, Arago, Kelvin, Hertz, Ampère, will cease to be meaningless to them. Comparative philology may unfold its discoveries at the next lecture; the student will hear for the first time of phonetic laws, of the connection of Sanskrit with Greek and Latin, and he will realize that the dry bones of grammar may become a living growth by the touch of a Sir William Jones, a Franz Bopp, and a Jakob Grimm. And the names of the master minds will impress themselves upon the memory through inevitable repetition, as when a Gauss reappears, with added splendor, in the story of mathematics, and Pascal is held up to equal admiration in literature and science.

No man is so great that the average undergraduate may be safely assumed to have heard of him, no fact so elementary that he may be supposed to be familiar with it, and, one may add, no subject is so abstruse that the teacher who has mastered it cannot throw a light on it that will penetrate the mind of some pupil. Let us ask ourselves candidly, Is there not something amiss in a college curriculum which leaves the average student on his graduation day as hopelessly ignorant on most subjects as his teachers privately confess him to be? How many undegraduates can answer the simplest questions concerning famous men of the past or present? Ask them who was the discoverer of the circulation of the blood; what is Huxley's principal title to distinction; who was Palladio, or Grotius, or Mrs. Somerville; who brought about the present relations between Austria and Hungary; what is the Mendelian law; who are Arrhenius and Metchnikoff? It would be pedantic to do more than point to the vast sea of ignorance that bounds the undergraduate's horizon. Let it not be asked, What can be taught in one short hour? We all have recollections of some casual talk with a man who was in love with his subject and spoke of it with warmth and spontaneity. How much of what is unforgettable did we learn on such an occasion!

I am well aware that a mere enumeration of names, a barren list of facts and events, will accomplish very little. Reference books galore have been at the disposal of the college student, and their information, hastily borrowed, has gone as it came. Whatever permanent general knowledge the student has acquired beyond his regular course has been the result either of a native interest in the subject or of an accidental stimulus. The course I have in mind would furnish a direct incentive to knowledge of an entirely different kind. The student would at every step of his academic career get a glimpse of a new world; he would see the interrelation of the various branches of human knowledge in the varied achievements of the great; he would form some idea of the comparative importance of these achievements; he would learn that there are established standards of international greatness. The meaning of a world literature would dawn upon him as he heard that national evaluations are often fallacious, that you cannot speak of any one literature as the greatest, and cannot balance a Goethe or a Molière against a Shakespeare, or a Voltaire against a Lessing or a Hume. He would be put on his guard against the excessive admiration of the present for the present to which every nation is prone. It would be made clear to him that not every Hauptmann is a Schiller, that not a hundred bright social philosophers of to-day make one Adam Smith. The talk of the specialist who knew how to condense the story of a great achievement into a few telling sentences would of necessity be stimulating and provocative of further inquiry on the part of the susceptible student. The dull listener would in all likelihood remain dull, but the attempt to interest all alike would not have been in vain. A university atmosphere would have been created which must react favorably upon the teachers themselves. Our higher colleges have inevitably suffered from the dual character of the task thrust upon them in the process of their transformation into universities. They are still striving, as they ever must, to discipline the youthful mind and to enforce thoroughness in restricted studies, but they are also attempting to broaden out into the road that leads to wider knowledge and a liberal culture. They are to prepare the student for the practical concerns of life as he will find it on leaving college, and are also supposed to shape his instruction in such a way as to make him adaptable, throughout his future career, to the company of the most enlightened of his fellow-beings. The college recognizes that nothing human ought to be foreign to him if he would acquire the ease that springs from universal interests. To some extent, at least, my suggestions may tend to lighten its task, and prove helpful to both students and teachers.

I have intentionally refrained from discussing the feasibility of harmonizing the new features proposed with the plan of instruction generally followed at present. I do not know whether my plan would be workable at all in the smaller colleges. Possibly, Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, and some of the larger State universities might lend their aid to less resourceful institutions. If the plan has in itself something to recommend it, I may safely leave its execution to the college authorities.

I may, however, be allowed to suggest that, in my opinion, an annual examination in any of the branches would be unnecessary, and that an oral examination on the entire course before a committee of all the lecturers would best serve to gauge the impression made on the students by the informal instruction received during the four years.

I confess that I am not dismayed at the reproach that my plan is virtually a plea for encouraging that dreaded thing—a "smattering" of knowledge. Let us face that charge honestly. We are all trying, all our lives, to acquire a smattering of many things, in order that we may at least know a little about them, and not stand abashed in the presence of those who know so much more. If we have mastered one or two things, we shall have done well indeed, but, pretending to be educated men, can we afford to remain deliberately ignorant of so much in this world? Why should not the process of getting miscellaneous information begin early rather than late, starting in the place where it can most easily be obtained—our colleges?

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Notes from the Capital

MARTIN A. KNAPP.

The threat of a great strike, involving nearly a half-million railway workers of the higher class, calls to mind the valuable services repeatedly rendered the Government and the public, as a conciliator, by a small, quiet, unobtrusive man who has long been a familiar figure in Washington. Here he comes. Observe his five feet of stature, his delicate hands, his inconspicuous but well-chosen attire. His hair, now thin above the temples, and the Van Dycks that frame in his lower face, were once distinctly blond, and still convey that suggestion in spite of their overlay of gray. He has a pleasant countenance, which lights up with a friendly smile when he is engaged in conversation, and his command of clear, expressive English is remarkable for its readiness to meet any exigency. Though his voice is somewhat high-pitched, its inflections are gentle, and might lure a stranger into fancying that he lacked positiveness; but touch him on any subject to which he has given serious thought, and whatever illusions you may have cherished in this regard are promptly dispelled, for no man has more positive convictions when he has any at all, and he sticks to his point as if he were bolted fast.

By this I do not mean that he is offensively opinionated; on questions which lie within the domain of his judicial activities he scrupulously avoids bias; and in matters which affect the right of private conscience, like religion or social duty, his only intolerance is against the intolerant. He has worked in close companionship and on terms of perfect amity with Jews and gentiles, Catholics and Protestants and unbelievers, men drawn from the lower as well as the higher walks in life; and the experience has given him such breadth of human understanding that he has become famous as an arbitrator between employers and employed who have fallen out with one another.

Born on a farm in Onondaga County, N. Y., nearly seventy-three years ago, Martin Augustine Knapp took his bachelor's degree as an honor-man at Wesleyan University, and went through the apprenticeship so common in the late sixties, of teaching a country school while reading law; and he had barely got well settled in practice in Syracuse when he was drafted into the city government as Corporation Counsel. His experience in this office during the early struggles of the West Shore Railroad to force its way through the centre of the State turned his attention particularly towards railway law, and led him into a line of practice after his retirement which strengthened his interest in transportation problems generally. The reputation he acquired in this field for knowledge and sound judgment led President Harrison to place him on the Interstate Commerce Commission, and there he stayed for more than nineteen years, and for a long period served as chairman. Successive Presidents, regardless of party differences, reappointed him whenever his term expired.

This would have been a sufficient career for most men, self-made as Knapp was; but more was to come. The creation of a Commerce Court, to which appeals might be carried from the decisions of the Commission, called for a group of judges of broad learning and large experience in their specialty, and the first name on everybody's lips seemed to be Knapp's. A man of his independence of character and directness of method could hardly have failed to make enemies, of course, and a few of the disgruntled brethren organized a plot to head off his promotion after it had been so extensively canvassed in the press as to leave no doubt that it was coming. The idea was to push through the confirmation of an appointment just made to the vacancy he had left on the Commission, then to defeat confirmation of his nomination to the court, and thus leave him out in the cold altogether. But President Taft awoke to the situation in time to spoil this ingenious programme.

Since the abolition of the Commerce Court, Knapp has been serving as a Circuit Judge. His associates on the appeals bench in the Fourth Circuit are Jeter C. Pritchard, of North Carolina, and Charles A. Woods, of South Carolina. Knapp retains his residence in Washington, and runs away from time to time to hold court. It is doubtful whether he will be drawn back into the harness of an arbitrator for the composition of the pending controversy; his position as a magistrate before whom some of the disputed issues might be brought later for formal adjudication would possibly embarrass him more or less in such an undertaking, and, although his health is good, it would impose a serious burden upon a man of his age to unravel all the details of this complicated dispute. His thorough familiarity with every economic principle involved would, however, make him an ideal umpire, and there is little doubt that both sides would welcome his aid if the matter is to be settled in the usual way. TATTLER.

Correspondence

AN OFFICER'S LIMITATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am quite unable to understand the cogency of the argument in Mr. Henry A. Wise Wood's purposive vindication of the exactness of Gen. Wood's much expressed and alarmist opinions. It may be quite true that Gen. Wood has wide and exact sources of information concerning military matters; this is his business, and if he is not expert thereon he is derelict of duty. But even so I fail to see how he can have well-grounded or reasonable data touching a two-nation combination or any other hostile purpose against America, or in what way he is qualified to have an opinion thereon. Such matters appertain to the State and diplomatic department of Government, and are not matters with which the military departments are concerned. Gen. Wood can be profitably heard in consultation upon matters of military organization, and his statements are worthy of attention in exact measure as he confines his judgments to his particular office. Upon the larger question involving national policies which might require the use of an army, and the particular army America requires for its Government's policy, Gen. Wood's voice speaks with no more authority than that of any other American citizen of equal intelligence, and his statements are *prima facie* under suspicion of being colored with a professional bias due to his occupation as an army officer. I personally am of the opinion that Gen. Wood has uttered a great deal which under critical examination appears most absurd and nonsensical; and which, were it not in line with the purpose of the Administration, would before this have caused the suggestion to be made that he was exceeding his proper function of silence as a high military official. OSCAR WOODWARD ZEIGLER.

Baltimore, March 25.

THE "WHAT" AND "WHY" OF PREPAREDNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Recently the writer inquired as to the "what" and the "why" of "preparedness." "In the mouth of two or three witnesses shall every word be established." On January 31 President Wilson said to the applauding multitude in Chicago: "We are not now thinking of invasion of the territory of the United States. That is not what is making us anxious. We are not asking ourselves, Shall we be prepared to defend our own shores and our own homes? Is that all we stand for? To keep the door securely shut against enemies? Certainly not. What about the great principles we have stood for—for liberty of government and national independence in the whole western hemisphere?" In the New York *Christian Advocate* of March 9 we read: "Are we to dominate other races? Is God training the Anglo-Saxon race, as many believe, for an hour sure to come in the world's future, and is our nation in His plan?" Is this the Kaiser speaking of *"Gott mit UNS"* and of *"der Tag"*? Oh no! It is my old friend, George Beattys, a New York lawyer. But how natural it sounds!

So here we have two representative answers to the question, "why?" agreeing that after all it is for future wars to enforce and extend our power and authority outside our own boundaries that the United States should undertake huge military preparations. Assuming that, like our famous "infant industries," the infant states of the American continents are never going to grow up beyond the need of protection, would it not be infinitely wiser and better to prepare for their permanent protection by international agreement than by sinking each other's cruisers, shelling each other's cities, and blowing each other's heads off in the effort to determine who shall be the authorized protector? And is Christianity so impractical a thing that it must play no part in the plans for the future?

Now that we have so clear an answer to the one of these questions, will somebody venture to tackle the other, and tell us *what* "preparedness" really will mean?

KARL HARRINGTON.

Wesleyan University, March 30.

THE CANDIDACY OF JUSTICE HUGHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just received your postal asking me to indicate on the attached card my preference among the several Presidential candidates, and am complying with your request by separate mail. Adverting to that portion of your purpose that is "particularly with a view to ascertaining if there is a widespread demand for the nomination of Justice Hughes," I venture to express the hope that you are planning to devote your energy to counteracting any such widespread demand in case

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your ballot should indicate that one exists. It is reported that on a former occasion when the name of Justice Hughes was being mentioned in a similar connection, Chief Justice White made it his business to express strongly to Justice Hughes his conviction that no member of the Supreme Court should ever entertain any political ambitions whatever, since, in his view, the safety of the country might some time depend upon a general confidence in the Supreme Court, and such a confidence could not exist if there should be a possibility that its decisions could be influenced by the personal ambitions of any of its members. That conversation may or may not have been held, but the wisdom of the opinion is clear. Remembering this report, I was surprised that Mr. Justice Hughes's recent declination, as you yourself pointed out, was not as positive as the classical refusal of Gen. Sherman. It is not necessary to think that Mr. Justice Hughes is ambitious of the Presidency, and it may be freely conceded that he would probably make a very good President, but it must be apparent that opening the door to political preferment to Justices of the Supreme Court would be too great a price to pay even for the best possible President. Perhaps circumstances of great national peril and unanimity of demand might some time make such a price not too great to pay, but no one would seriously contend that any such necessity (or any such demand) confronts us now. At present it would seem more important to establish a tradition protecting the Supreme Court than to get any particular man in the country for our Presidency—or for some candidacy.

In California the principle is embodied in our Constitution, section 18 of article vi of which provides that "the judges of the Supreme Court and the District Courts of Appeal, and the judges of the Superior Courts, shall be ineligible to any other office or public employment other than a judicial office or employment during the term for which they shall have been elected." (Our judges have twelve- and six-year terms, respectively.) Nor was this provision first seen in our much-criticised Constitution of 1879. The Constitution of 1849 had a similar provision for Justices of the Supreme Court and district judges, and an amendment in 1862 extended its effect to the county judges, now called judges of the Superior Courts.

WILLIAM H. GORRILL.

San Francisco, March 23.

MORAL AND MATERIAL IDEALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As we have been drifting aimlessly on this sea of trouble without pilot or guide, "too proud to fight" and "pursuing a policy of watchful waiting," thinking of little else than how to reap the greatest material advantage from this European war, it seems but natural that the sympathies of those foreign-born among us should be with the land of their birth, where, if they have no relatives, they have at least all the recollections and associations of their childhood, and that their hearts should beat in unison with the aspirations of the land of their forebears.

It seems to me, on the contrary, that a great opportunity is being lost to knit the country together, an opportunity such as may never occur again and which it would be the height of meanness and selfishness to wish to see again. No matter what may be to-day the outcome of the negotiations about submarine warfare, the lesson of the Lusitania crime is lost to the majority of our people. Instead of a message of rightful indignation setting forth the aims and ideals of our country, what it has stood for and of what it was supposed to be the champion, tame negotiations were allowed to drag on for an indefinite period so that the whole point of the controversy has become so obscured that many of our people to-day believe that the Lusitania was an armed converted cruiser on which our countrymen had no business to take passage.

The first warning which we received from our President was not to stand by him for the vindication and defence of the rights and ideals of our country, but a message to be prepared to frame legislation which would prevent the unloading of cheap European goods in this country when the war was ended. Thus was the material side allowed to obscure the moral issue.

Business partnerships last so long as there is profit to those engaged in them, but moral partnerships based on the same ideals and aspirations last as long as those ideals and aspirations are kept pure and unsoiled. It is not by being assured that Congress will legislate so that his profits or wages will be as little disturbed as possible when peace reigns once more that the hyphenated American is going to forget the land of his birth and give his heart and soul entirely over to his adopted country, but by feeling and knowing that America stands for nobler things, has higher moral aims, than the country which he has left, and is not afraid to proclaim them and to defend them in the face of the world. E. DUPLESSIS BEYLARD.

San Mateo, Cal., March 27.

HELIGOLAND—ENGLAND'S ERROR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is no doubt that, in the light of what has happened since August, 1914, the cession of Heligoland was indeed an error on the part of England, but may it not be fairly said that until the war began, and certainly not in 1896, England had no reason to think Germany capable of the action which all the world now knows? It should be remembered, too, that while England possessed Heligoland it was never made a naval station, and if it had been so made, its proximity to Germany would easily have made it a *casus belli*, or, at any rate, it would have been rightly regarded as a cause of irritation. Personally, I am glad that England showed her readiness to yield it, even though the action has led to the German transformation of it. In the eyes of the world England is in a better position to-day than if she had retained and fortified it. I am also personally glad that the cession was made by a Conservative statesman, Lord Salisbury, and not by a Liberal like Mr. Gladstone. We can well imagine what would be the outcry of certain English journalists at the present time if the Liberals had been responsible for this act. When the day of reckoning comes, it is much to be hoped that the island may find its way back to the original owners, the Danes, from whom England took it a century ago. This would at once be fair and also one of the best guarantees against a repetition of German trickery and treachery.

W. H. GRIFFITH THOMAS.

Toronto, Can., March 28.

"THE IMMEDIATE CAUSES OF THE WAR."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I hope you will kindly give me space in your columns to note certain important points concerning the origin of the great war, omitted in an article entitled "The Immediate Causes of the War," by Edward Raymond Turner, published in the *Nation* for January 27.

(1.) The celebrated *Westminster Gazette* telegram from Germany to Austria, published in that journal for August 1, 1914, wherein Germany puts pressure, coupled with a threat, on her ally Austria to discuss matters with Russia. Sent from the German Chancellor to the German Ambassador at Vienna and dated Berlin, July 30, it reads as follows: "The report of Count Pourtales is not in harmony with the account which your Excellency has given of the attitude of the Austro-Hungarian Government; there seems to be a misunderstanding which I ask you to clear up. We cannot expect Austria-Hungary to negotiate with Servia since she is in a state of war with that country, but it would be a grave mistake to refuse an exchange of opinions with Petersburg. We are prepared to fulfil our duty as allies, but we must decline to be drawn into a universal conflagration through a disregard of our advice on the part of Austria-Hungary. I ask your Excellency at once to speak to Count Berchtold seriously and emphatically in this sense."

As this telegram has been held to absolve Germany from wishing a European war, the writer who alludes to its existence should have discussed it. Possibly, owing to the delicate ground it touches, between two allies, it was not published either in the German or Austrian diplomatic books, but was given by Germany to an English newspaper, the *Westminster Gazette*, on the breaking out of the war, after which, its authenticity having been questioned in England, it was read before the Reichstag by the Chancellor in his speech of August 19, 1915.

(2.) The fact that no such pressure as this, no threat straining the Entente, appears in the diplomatic correspondence, as (a) put by either France or England upon Russia to halt her mobilization, which the Germans continually complained of as menacing, and which they alleged to have been the cause of the war, or (b) put by England upon France to keep the war out of the west, when on July 31, three days before Belgium was invaded, Germany asks France whether or not she will stay neutral (G. 25).

(3.) As an apparent result of this pressure by Germany on Austria, the significance of Austria's yielding to discussion announced on July 31, when Austria (a) accepts Grey's last four-Power conference proposal in toto (A. 51), and (b) offers to discuss directly her Servian note with Russia (E. 133), seems insufficiently explained by the writer, who dwells at length on Austria's refusal of and Germany's objection to Grey's first four-Power conference proposal.

(4.) The Russian mobilization and particularly the Russian change from partial to total mobilization, which the Germans allege as the cause of the war, might have been more fully explained.

It began, according to the Czar (G. 23-A), on July 25, that is, before Russia had promised Servia to help her, before Austria had declared war on Servia, and probably soon after

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the Austrian ultimatum to Servia (July 23) had been issued. Though declared by Germany to be a hindrance to peace negotiations, this Russian mobilization was kept up without the receipt by Russia of any threatening letters of the *Westminster Gazette* type from her allies, without apparent abatement or hindrance "first, last, and all the time," until Germany declared war. Germany, it appears, let it go for five days until it changed, after midnight on July 30, from partial mobilization against Austria to total mobilization against Germany, also. It is then that Germany orders the "Krieges Zustand," sends her twelve-hour ultimatum to Russia, officially mobilizes about thirty hours after Russia, and an hour or two later declares war on Russia.

It seems hard to escape the inference at this point that for strategic reasons Germany should have mobilized, and, more than this, done so immediately, without waiting, rather than lose the thirty hours, and that her ultimatum or warning to Russia was to her own disadvantage and in favor of the enemy. On the other hand, it might have been questioned why Germany did not content herself with mobilizing without declaring war.

(5.) Another much discussed point here omitted is the Belgian diplomatic letter of M. d'Escailles from Petrograd to the Belgian Foreign Minister, seized in transit in Germany, describing conditions in Russia on July 30. (See Headlam's "History of Twelve Days," page 402, and *North German Gazette*, September 12, 1914.)

As France on the same day, July 30 (F. 101, and see also E. 6), before Germany has taken definite action, promises to support Russia, this letter seems to express the opinion of the diplomat, which opinion it appears is supported by other press telegrams of that day from Petrograd (see Price's "Diplomatic History of the War," p. 476), that England on the same day, July 30, in spite of her other peaceful telegrams, has secretly agreed to do the same thing; whereupon, as if having waited for such assurance, Russia on the same night orders total mobilization.

(6.) That the writer should not have emphasized the very important French telegram (F. 101) seems regrettable, (a) since, according to this, France on July 30 promises to stand by Russia before Germany has definitely acted, and while the latter, according to the *Westminster Gazette* telegram above noted, is still trying to keep the peace, and (b) since, while it is possible to suppose that the war, thus far not directly concerning France and England, might, but for the Franco-Russian secret alliance, have been confined to a struggle between Slav and Teuton in the east, this action of France, whether by force of her alliance or otherwise making possible the extension of the war to the west, needs to be well understood.

On the next day, July 31, when France, asked by Germany to declare in eighteen hours whether she will or will not remain neutral, says that she will act according to her interests (G. 27), Germany appears to be strategically compelled either to attack France or, while fighting Russia, to maintain an army mobilized but idle on the French frontier, waiting to see when France, according to F. 101, will attack her in the rear. If France had agreed to stay neutral, it seems reasonable to suppose that there would have been no invasion of Belgium, no excuse for the participation of England, and no war in the west, and also unreasonable to suppose that in that case Germany, for strategic reasons, would have attacked France, that is to say, gratuitously made two enemies when she could have confined herself to one. The comparative morality or immorality of the Russo-French and Austro-German alliances will eventually need discussion by history. The Alsace question, the French foreign policy, the fact that under the same alliance France did not help Russia in the Russo-Japanese war, need much further discussion.

(7.) The document frequently referred to as No. 123 of the British White Book, wherein, on August 1, two days before Belgium was invaded, Germany asks England to formulate her own (England's) conditions on which she will engage to remain neutral, says that England refuses to formulate any conditions. This happens two days after the German efforts to obtain England's neutrality recorded in E. 85. A discussion arose in England, still unsettled, over the matter as to whether this document No. 123 did not supersede document No. 85, and why Grey based his war argument on No. 85 and not on No. 123. Whether Grey did or did not present this apparent "last word" of Germany at the Cabinet meeting on August 2. Why he did not refer to it in his war speech in Parliament of August 3. Why the British public knew nothing of it until after war was declared, and the pros and cons of the remarkable discussion in Parliament on August 27, when Keir Hardie, after war had been declared and the country was in an uproar, asked Grey to explain these facts.

Several other points will need further elucidation, such as:

(8.) The reasons given by the three British Cabinet Ministers for resigning at the outbreak of the war.

(9.) The article in the London *Times* stating that England did not fight because of Belgium.

(10.) The *casus belli* of Italy after the abandonment of her alliance, her threatening attitude, her increasing demands for Austrian territory yielded to by the latter, her irredentist agitation not directed against Nice, Malta, Corsica, or the Swiss Ticino, and her final declaration of war on the plea of "not enough."

H. C. MERCER.

Doylestown, Pa., March 21.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Necessary brevity caused me to omit from my article discussion of many things, and also, perhaps, resulted in the too brief discussion of others. In respect of this I hope for indulgence as far as may seem proper. As to the matters mentioned by your correspondent:

(1.) and (2.) I base nothing on the "*Westminster Gazette* telegram," because its real value is not known to me. I should be glad if your correspondent would furnish the passage in which the German Chancellor specifically acknowledges that this "telegram" was a communication of his Government. If it has such validity, one must wonder that the German Government did not include in the "White Book" a document so greatly in its own favor. (3.) Discussed in section VIII of my article. Referring thereto your correspondent will notice that I do not say that Austria's telegram (A. 51) was suppressed by Germany, desiring rather to reserve my opinion with regard to this. But whatever were the efforts and good intentions of Germany, and it must be remembered that our ignorance of them is largely due to the character of the documents which the Germans themselves issued in defence, the important thing is that Germany now almost immediately declared war, and so brought to an end all efforts to avert the disaster.

(4.) Discussed in section IX. It remains unsettled with respect to both Germany and Russia how soon military preparations began, and how far they were carried. It should be remembered that the Czar proposed submitting the dispute to the Hague Conference.

(5.) and (6.) Discussed in sections VI, X, and XI. The instances cited by your correspondent show that the members of the Triple Entente were resolved to stand together against Germany and Austria, not that they were determined to attack them. In the diplomatic situation then existing it was natural that the two coalitions should close their ranks. No one doubts that France might have confined the present struggle to a conflict between Slav and Teuton in eastern Europe, had she withdrawn from association with Russia. But this would have meant the end of the Dual Alliance, and, as far as Russia was concerned, the lasting abandonment of France to the isolation in which Bismarck always wished to keep her. The Russo-Japanese War, when Russia fought against Japan singly, does not furnish analogy. No one has asserted that France would have joined Russia against Austria alone.

(7.) No nation with great interests directly and indirectly at stake, certainly not one in the position of England, could afford in advance to bind itself to neutrality in view of the immense and uncertain possibilities of a general European conflict. I must repeat that the Teutonic allies seem to have been most sincere in desiring peace, if they could also obtain that which they desired; that they honestly wished to obtain it peaceably rather than by fighting. If war ensued, then they did most certainly prefer to fight one of their enemies rather than all of them. But in my opinion the evidence does not show that they desired peace so much as to be willing to make real concessions or submit grievances to adjudication, as one must when one is willing to treat peaceably with one's equals.

(8.) Dr. Liebknecht, in Germany, illustrates the fact that there is almost always a party of opposition to any policy.

(9.) I must refer again to section XI.

(10.) Discussed in sections XI and XII.

EDWARD RAYMOND TURNER.

Ann Arbor, Mich., March 24.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The College Entrance Examination Board has appointed the following commission to consider a further revision of the requirements in Latin for admission to college: Prof. C. H. Moore, Harvard University, chairman; Prof. G. J. Laing, Chicago University; Prof. N. G. McCrea, Columbia University; Prof. C. W. Mendell, Yale University; Prof. D. R. Stuart, Princeton University; Prof. M. N. Wetmore, Williams College; Miss S. B. Franklin, Ethical Culture School, New York; Prof. J. C. Kirtland, Phillips Exeter Academy; Mr. W. V. McDuffee, Central High School, Springfield, Mass.; Dr. B. W. Mitchell, Central High School, Philadelphia; Dr. J. W. Warnock, Hill School, Pottstown, Pa.

The requirements in their present form became operative in 1911. Experience seems to

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indicate the possible desirability of certain changes of detail, though not of principle. Among the changes suggested are a reduction in the total number of entrance examinations such as would be gained, for instance, by combining into one examination the separate tests in grammar, elementary prose composition, and Cicero and sight translation of prose, or by using the comprehensive papers which Harvard, Yale, and Princeton employ; a reduction in the amount of prescribed reading in Vergil and in Cicero with the provision that the prescribed portions of the text should be changed every few years; and the preparation of an official list of words that the candidate should be required to know by the end of the second, third, and fourth years of study respectively. Those who may be interested in these and similar changes are requested to send their suggestions to the chairman in the course of the next two weeks.

CLIFFORD H. MOORE, Chairman.

Harvard University, April 4.

Scandinavian Books

BERGEN, Norway, March 11.

The great bulk of Scandinavian publishing is done just before Christmas every year, and the season of 1915 was a comparatively rich one.

Of the Norwegian authors now living, Knut Hamsun is the most noted. His works have been brought out in Norway in a collected edition, and translations have found their way to the reading public of a number of foreign countries. Especially in Russia his popularity is strong, being almost on a level with that of the great Russian novelists. Some of his works have been translated into English and published in American editions, but they have apparently failed to get the same strong hold on the readers that they did in his own country. This may be due to the mysticism, the reflective, contemplative spirit, and the lack of plot in Hamsun's novels. These qualities characterize, also, in a way the excellent new book, "Segelfoss By" ("Segelfoss Village"), which he brought out last Christmas. The calm and quiet description of life and people in the small village up in the North totally lacks exciting plot, but it is full of reflections on human nature and the vicissitudes of life. Its strongest point, however, is the striking delineation of character. Hamsun knows the persons he is presenting, and his characters are types that will be remembered after the last leaf of the book has been turned. His style is excellent, and has never been better exemplified than in this last work.

Of the many talented young authors of Norway during recent years, none has better fulfilled expectations than Johan Falkberget. His last novel, "Lisbet paa Jarnfjeld" ("Lisbeth on Jarnfjeld"), is a remarkably strong work, full of life, intensity, and mystery, and written in powerful, rather abrupt language. The poet portrays with striking realism the desolate life of the people living on the highlands of his country, and the rigid, almost frosty and brutal, qualities which the gloomy environments are apt to develop in them. The heroine, Lisbeth, is a strong and self-centred woman, for the rest of her life suffering for the mistake she made when she married a man from the valley, who was of an entirely different nature from herself, and not able to understand her real self, instead of waiting for the young clergyman, who was of her own clan and long ago had won her love. With keen psychological insight, the characters of Lisbeth, her husband, and her children are delineated, and the slight touch of an unhealthy religious atmosphere around the descriptions of life on the highlands adds to the ghastliness of the catastrophes of the book. "Lisbeth on Jarnfjeld" is a very promising work, and the development of its author should be watched with keen interest.

It is a curious coincidence that a number of the most noteworthy Norwegian authors treat of religious phenomena in their new books, and particularly of the exaggerations of religious zeal which still characterize the spiritual life of a considerable portion of the less educated class of the people. Of these novels on religious topics, "Broremand" ("Little Brother"), by Johan Fredrik Vinsnes, deserves special attention. It is a serious book, full of understanding of what is essential and most valuable in the Christian faith.

Of the Norwegian non-fiction should be noted "Hvor Sydlyset Flammer" ("Where the Southern Light Blazes"), a well-written account of Scott's South Polar expedition, by Tryggve Gran, who himself was one of the participants of the expedition, being the only foreigner connected with the great tragedy. A professor of literature at the University of Christiania, Gerhard Gran, has issued an interesting survey of intellectual life in Norway during the last hundred years, "Norsk Aandsliv i Hundrede Aar" ("Norwegian Cultural Life during a Hundred Years"), and the critic, Carl Nærup, has issued a selection of letters from the renowned novelist, Jonas Lie, "Jonas Lie og Hans Samtidige" ("Jonas Lie and His Contemporaries"). A rather superficial, but well-written book, which created some kind of a sensation, is S. C. Hammer's critical biography of the Kaiser ("Wilhelm II").

Among Danish fiction-writers, Henrik Pontoppidan for a good many years has been of the foremost. His new book, "Enslevs Død" ("Enslev's Death"), is the fourth of a series, having as a common aim the characterization of the Danish nation at the beginning of the twentieth century. Pontoppidan takes a gloomy view of the situation, and maintains very strongly that the liberty of a nation, like the liberty of the mind, cannot be inherited, but has to be acquired anew by each generation and each individual. He warns against various reactionary tendencies prevailing in the life of our day in many of its aspects, and his social-political novel is intended as a vigorous blow in behalf of the high ideals which in former days carried the nation through many dangers. The author introduces a formidable array of characters in his new work, and he understands how to delineate each in a few words. The development of the story is rich in stirring events, and the author's keen wit may at times prove refreshing, at times repulsive. But, whatever happens, neither the developments of the story nor his meditations are tedious.

Other noteworthy Danish novels are "Livets Strand" ("The Shore of Life"), by the young Icelandic author, Gunnar Gunnarsson, who had a great success a couple of years ago with his beautiful little book, "Guest, the One-Eyed"; "Olivia Marianne," by the renowned writer and thinker, Johannes V. Jensen; "Jorden" ("The Earth"), by his sister, Thit Jensen, and a collection of short stories, "Jyder" ("Jutlanders"), by Jacob Knudsen. Of the Danish non-fiction, Johannes V. Jensen's "Introduktionen til Vor Tidsalder" ("The Introduction to Our Age") deserves special attention, revealing strong intellect, original thought, and clear literary style.

The Swedish fiction of 1915 has no single work protruding above the fair medium. Selma Lagerlöf issued no new novel, but a collection of short stories, sketches, essays, and articles, under the common title, "Troll och Människor" ("Trolls and Men"). Admirers of Miss Lagerlöf will find many of her best and most charming qualities as a writer represented in this new book. More interesting is the Swedish non-fiction of the season. Sweden owns a considerable number of critical essayists and historians who deal with cultural problems of our age, or take their subjects from events and characters belonging to remote epochs of history. An excellent series that should be noted is Bonnier's classical library, which so far has brought translations of Plato, Emerson, Fichte, Petrarch, Montesquieu, and others. They are translated by Sweden's first authors, and are very inexpensive. A number of high-class collections of literary essays and monographs have been published in Sweden during the last years, but in interest these are probably overshadowed by two other works of non-fiction which recently appeared, "Folklynnen" ("The Tempers of Nations"), by Carl G. Laurin, and "Kriget mot Ryssland" ("The War against Russia"), by Sven Hedin.

Laurin's work is a collection of essays on the race problem. He portrays in a convincing manner the chief characteristics and peculiarities of each nation, and in an extremely entertaining chapter deals with one nation's impressions of another. One of the most important essays treats of the Swedish national instincts and various problems related thereto — for instance, the question of emigration. The author is not afraid of making definite statements, but he always gives strong reasons to confirm them. The well-known traveller, Sven Hedin, never attempted to conceal his strong German sympathies in the war. As the guest of the German Government, he visited the army on the west front, and wrote a weighty volume on what he had seen and experienced, "Från Fronten i Väster" ("From the Front in the West"). Some months later he went to the front in the East, and the bulky work which he recently published on his experiences there, "Kriget mot Ryssland" ("The War against Russia"), is full of excitement and sensation, written in a vivid and picturesque style and marked with the author's keen faculty of observation and description. This work certainly is no just and unbalanced summary of rights and wrongs, faults and virtues, but it is a powerful human document of actions and sufferings during the worst crisis that humanity has passed through. The great sensation in Swedish lyrics is the publication of a new volume of poems by Verner von Heidenstam. A number of years has passed since this author's last lyrical collection came out, and the new volume has met with great enthusiasm in Sweden. In spite of a certain degree of monotony in the selection of pictures, it must also be admitted that Heidenstam's poems possess many charming qualities: they have a musical rhythm, a soft, melancholy touch, a manly though resigned view of life, and the best ones are filled with the lonely individual's reflective intellectualism.

ARNE KILDAL.

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Literature

THE LEGISLATURE ARRAIGNED.

Your Congress. By Lynn Haines. Washington, D. C.: National Voters' League. $1.15.

Its non-committal title might leave open a doubt whether this book is merely descriptive in purpose, or didactic as well; but even a glance over its pages, with their black and white diagrams, their several varieties of type, and their other symptoms of the modern mania for impressing the reader through his eye before calling his reasoning faculties into play, promptly settles the question. Mr. Haines is a professional reformer, with a special mission to purify the processes of legislation, and the organizer of a National Voters' League, designed to keep the closest practicable watch on the activities of every member of Congress and report them to the several constituencies interested. In a specimen tabular statement, which forms an appendix to the extended text, is given a list of Representatives, with the length of service of every man, his party affiliations, and his record on fifteen different measures brought before the House between 1909 and 1914 of sufficient importance to justify a roll-call. Of course, a great many more measures were passed or defeated during that period without roll-calls, and how the same members voted on these can in most cases only be guessed at. One of Mr. Haines's chief complaints is against the transaction of so much of the public business in this irresponsible fashion, making it practically impossible to hold a slippery member to strict account for his lapses from duty.

The larger part of the space in the book is devoted to what the author styles the "system" under which Congress—or a bipartisan combination that bosses Congress—works, the leaders of opposing parties ostensibly fighting each other, but privately making common cause against any person, faction, or movement that threatens their supremacy. It is in his treatment of this phase of his subject that Mr. Haines betrays one of his shortcomings as a critic. A good deal of what he says has a broad enough basis of truth to inspire a regret in the mind of a thoughtful reader that it should so often be weakened by the theatrical dialect of the cheap-magazine cult: most of his arguments could be made so much more effective by a calm, unemotional manner of presentation.

Doubtless a majority of his readers will agree with Mr. Haines in his belief that publicity would be a valuable corrective in dealing with the principal evils in our law-making machinery. Where they would divide in judgment would be as to his manner of applying it; for, after sweeping the Senate out of existence altogether, he would have the Constitution amended in regard to the House so as "to enable a smaller number than one-fifth to secure record votes." Even so radical a reformer of parliamentary methods as Speaker Reed never went to this length, though advocating the reduction of the quorum to one hundred. Our author seems to have drawn for his plan on theory rather than on experience, or else his experience has been sadly limited for a constructive publicist. With 435 voting members in the House, it is often difficult to keep a quorum of 218 members within hearing of the clerk's voice. One-fifth of the members present may insist upon the yeas and nays. Judging by what has happened repeatedly in the past, one is moved to wonder how the House could transact any business at all in troublous times if it lay in the power of a much smaller number than forty-four to demand a record vote on every question that might arise. Nobody familiar with Congresses as recent as the Forty-ninth and Fiftieth need be warned of the condition of helplessness to which a deliberative body may be reduced when the roll-call privilege has become an obsession with it.

The abuses of the mileage appropriations, of caucus rule, of franking, of committee assignments, and the like, come in for condemnation, of course, but Mr. Haines does not appear to have hit upon any very practical means of getting rid of them. The caucus, for instance, we probably shall have with us, in one form or another, as long as human nature remains human nature; every labor strike embodies its fundamental philosophy, that the only hope of getting anything done in the face of stubborn opposition is by a compact union of all the favoring forces, in which the preferences and even the advantages of the minority give way to the common cause. Indeed, Mr. Haines, in spite of an intense admiration for insurgency in Congress, apparently attributes the weakness of the insurgent enterprises hitherto chiefly to their lack of the very solidity which constitutes the caucus a terror to its adversaries.

It may well be questioned whether any of the wrongs which our author would right by setting existing conditions summarily aside and starting afresh, cannot be more effectually disposed of by the publicity machinery he has already put in motion with his National Voters' League. Taking mileage as an instance, would not the publication in every member's district of the amount of his drafts on the Treasury for his travelling expenses, side by side with the legitimate cost of the same trip or trips, prove a better protection against repetitions of his graft than enacting new laws for him to evade? A well-trained professional politician is apt to chuckle in his sleeve at restrictive measures forced upon him: what he cannot stand up against is publicity respecting his present conduct, "and that," as the sea-captain said of civility, "of the very commonest kind." It is not so long since we heard a loud outcry against the tyrannical manner in which the House rules were framed, amended, and enforced. A change of method urgently demanded by the remonstrants was made; yet to-day we hear almost as vigorous a complaint as before that the chamber is under control of an oligarchy. When it comes to the caucus, would not a "deadly parallel" circulated through his district, showing how Representative Blank acted when he was free to follow his own faith and bent, and what he did after the caucus had tied him fast, have greater influence on him and on his constituents than any attempt—almost certainly foredoomed to failure—to overturn a practice apparently so deep-rooted in the nature of mankind?

In so far as "Your Congress" incites its readers to inquire more diligently what their lawmakers are doing and why they do it, there can be no doubt of its being an instrument of good to the community. But the only proof of the effectiveness of Mr. Haines's radical projects would be their adoption for practical test, and then it would be too late to go back if they played false to expectation.

CURRENT FICTION.

At the Door of the Gate. By Forrest Reid. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

This writer, though hitherto unknown in America, has already produced several novels, and has been accepted in England as a story-teller of sincerity and force. He is not a member of the skittish school of British fiction. He betrays a sense of character, as contrasted with temperament, and of moral beauty as contrasted with physical or mental ardors. His present hero is not that flighty, irresponsible dabbler in sensation who has trailed the name of Oxford through the mud or froth of so many recent novels. He is, in fact, a very humanly decent person. The story is by no means a "pleasant" one, to be sure. Deplorable things happen, and terrible things; but they do not happen without meaning, and the narrative ends, as it were, upon a rising inflection.

The place is Belfast. The central figure, Richard Seawright, is second son of a widow, a small shopkeeper of thrift and common-sense, but without imagination. The elder son, who is shifty and selfish but outwardly a conformist, is her favorite. The only member of the household who understands him is the girl Grace, an adopted child. She has uncommon talent in music. Richard aspires to be a writer. The two are temperamentally "made for each other." But she is obscured for him by the nominal sisterly relation, and, loving her, he "falls in love" with a vulgar and shallow girl, and marries her to no possible end but the destruction of her and his own happiness. Too late comes the realization of his feeling for Grace; and when the hapless little wife is taken out of the way, and Grace is ready to give up her husband and step-children for Richard's sake, that moment also has come too late. For, by the strangest of roads, Richard has achieved a mystical revelation of the meaning of life, for him; and he must fare on alone. However vague the mood upon which the tale ends, it is at least a

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mood of exaltation and of hope—commodities too rarely dealt in by Mr. Reid's contemporaries.

Bildad the Quill-Driver. By William Caine. New York: John Lane Co.

This is an example of a sort of humorous work to which, for better or worse, we Americans are little susceptible. It has that quality of long-drawn-out facetiousness which so often repels us in the jests of *Punch*. It is full of wit, of cleverness, of admirable fooling. You may take it as a nonsense story or as a parable, and find merits either way; and yet it is rather a bore. The truth is, it is too patently a thing done and too obscurely a thing felt. Its fable, its satire, its humorous philosophy, are all made out of whole cloth, by a very clever and versatile tailor. Bildad of Zog, whose remarkable adventures are here recorded, is an amusing little puppet, in spots, but there is too much of him. The book is best worth looking into for its occasional passages of unforced satire, and for the pseudo-Oriental versicles, which are often extraordinarily pat and suggestive. The six illustrations by H. M. Bateman are extremely funny and apt.

Where the Path Breaks. By Capt. Charles de Crespigny. New York: The Century Co.

The publishers announce this as the work of a very well-known writer (whether English or American is left artfully in doubt) who has seen fit, for blameless reasons, to reserve his name. It is not a book which is likely to excite very animated discussion. In a way, it is "up-to-date," since it deals with a hero of the present war; but its atmosphere is frankly sentimental and "Victorian"; the atmosphere, let us say, of such a novelist as Lady Clifford (Mrs. Henry de la Pasture). The beautiful American heroine is so shrinking and girlish that she lets her newly married husband go off to war without permitting him to see that she loves him. That rich and modest baronet is so self-sacrificing that when, after a miraculous return from the grave, he finds that his wife-in-name-only is now another's, he does not hesitate to remain technically dead. Unfit for further service in the field, he takes a new name, and a passage for America. In the steerage on the way over (after making some money sketching the portraits of passengers), he writes a book embodying his own story. He has never written anything before, but an American publisher leaps at it, and forces him to accept a large advance royalty and a most liberal contract. When the book (as he has hoped) reaches the eye of the supposed widow, a romantic correspondence ensues, which ends with the death of the second husband—a brute to whom, we are relieved to hear, she has also been a wife in name only—the journey of the lady in search of her friend, and the predestined discovery that he is in truth her original war-husband. The tale, such as it is, is "well written"; that is, the effect sought for is attained, the style is adequate for the substance, which—if one tries to relate it to any sort of reality—is very flimsy indeed.

The Long Road Home. By Ralph D. Paine. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This popular writer of stories for boys does work which is in some respects much better than it need be. For one thing, his style is simple and vigorous, very different from the inflated lingo, slang-bestrewn, which appears to have been agreed upon by most boys' writers as the proper thing. And his descriptions and digressions are often good. As for the substance of the thing, it is deadly familiar. Young first officer on crack ship of American coasting service. Good, brave, handsome. Young captain of same, bad, cowardly, handsome. Heiress aboard with dissipated brother. Captain bullies first officer, who talks back with impunity. (This is one of the characteristics of juvenile fiction—talking back never costs anything but more talk.) Ship is lost by captain's fault, against much talk on the part of chief officer. Captain throws blame on officer, who is first disrated, then supposedly lost at sea, finally vindicated. Marries heiress. Reforms dissipated brother. Captain slinks into outer darkness. First officer offered command in old service. Never. Returns to his New Hampshire home, reforms town, and builds up coasting business of his own. This is all well enough: after Oliver Optic and Henty and their myriad successors, one cannot ask for new materials in the "story for boys," and may well be grateful if the old material gets some tinge of reality from such touches of characterization and hints of true action as may be found in the present narrative.

A Man's Reach. By Sally Nelson Robins. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

An amiable and sentimental Southern lady, who rather prides herself on being up-to-date, sets out to write a novel, and obtains the advice of that eminent literary physician, Dr. J. Berg Esenwein. "A Man's Reach," the result, is just such a novel as one might expect from these circumstances. It is not without interest; it gives us a view, amusing in its naïve snobbishness, of a section of Virginia society. It is steeped in sentiment, mostly of a rather old-fashioned sort, but with a suggestion of Harold Bell Wright by way of modern flavoring. The authoress imagines that men talk confidentially like this:

"I am a man, all right, Ran, and I glory in it. I have felt the crimson of passion, but the hand of God held fast the ivory door. . . . I'm no namby-pamby eunuch, Ran, but I've seen God—that is all."

"Know Tagore?" Ran asked.

"I love the 'Gardener'—'Mine is heart, my beloved.'"

This gentleman, you understand, is at once red-blooded and spiritual. Not many passages in the book are so delectably absurd; yet the central idea, that a beautiful and innocent young girl (of the most aristocratic family) can reform a sodden drunkard of a young man (also of the most aristocratic connections) by first studying his genealogy and various works on mental healing and suggestion, and then practicing her doctrines on him, is not without entertaining possibilities. Some of these are realized.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

The Cambridge History of English Literature. Edited by Sir A. W. Ward and A. R. Waller. Vol. XII: The Nineteenth Century. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50 net.

The publication of the present volume has been delayed by the war, but, apart from the brief statement of the editors in the preface, in regard to the difficulties with which they have had to contend, there is no trace of the great conflict in its pages. The previous volume, which bore the sub-title of "The French Revolution," had already dealt with some of the most famous names in the literature of the early nineteenth century—*e. g.*, Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Southey. On the other hand, it included writers, like Cowper and Burns, whose activities fell entirely within the eighteenth century. The volume now before us is concerned wholly with the nineteenth century, but, except in the field of literature, pure and simple, not exclusively with the earlier decades of that century. Thus, although the volume begins with Walter Scott, it passes in review the theologians and historians of the century down to its close. The next two volumes, which will complete the work and which will, of course, deal, *inter alia*, with Victorian poetry and fiction, are to be issued together.

The quality of the present volume is, on the whole, inferior to that of the preceding volume. The great subjects in it are, of course, Scott, Byron, Shelley, and Keats. In his rather perfunctory treatment of Scott, however, T. F. Henderson falls below the excellent chapter on Burns which he contributed to Vol. XI of this history. To be sure, his estimate of the Waverley Novels, which follows orthodox lines, is just enough, and contains some good observations, as when, with reference to the colorlessness of Scott's lovers, he remarks that "with him romance was not primarily the romance of love, but the general romance of human life, of the world and its activities, and, more especially, of the warring, adventurous, and more or less strange and curiosity-provoking past." He is right, too, in meeting Carlyle's ill-natured attack on Scott for not propagating moral or social dogmas with the assertion that the very absence of such didactic aims from his writings may "be reckoned one of the chief sources of his charm and of the widely beneficent influence he exercises." On the other hand, there are some strange judgments in the discussion

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of Scott's poems. One is astonished to learn, for instance, that "Rokeby" is "better constructed" than the three great narrative poems that preceded it—"The Lay of the Last Minstrel," "Marmion," and "The Lady of the Lake." As a matter of fact, it is marred by more serious faults of construction than any other of Scott's narrative poems. Owing to the clumsy, obscure, and piecemeal manner in which the previous history of Mortham and Redmond is introduced at various points in the poem, the reader's attention is taxed to the utmost to make out what is the true story of these characters. Above all, the end of "Rokeby" is atrocious. Scott was simply weary of his work and huddled into a few pages incidents that, if related in proportion, would have filled out a couple of additional cantos. It seems rather conventional, moreover, to adopt Lockhart's criticism of "the combination of mean felony with so many noble qualities in the character of the hero" as the "main blot" in "Marmion"—especially, when one considers that the "noble qualities," on analysis, are found to consist merely of courage and a superficial courtesy. Furthermore, we do not believe that many readers will agree with Mr. Henderson in regarding Scott's lyrics as his best poetry. "Here," the writer remarks, "he has been overshadowed by Burns, and he hardly deserves to be so"; and, again, comparing the lyrical production of the two poets, Scott, he declares, "showed, perhaps, a more independent fertility, and his diversity is quite as remarkable." Scott has, unquestionably, many fine lyrics to his credit, the best of them being scattered through his narrative poems; but bring them all together, and who would assert that they give him a claim to a place among the greatest lyrical geniuses in European poetry, a claim which few would be disposed to deny in the case of Burns! In this connection, it is singular that Mr. Henderson should refer more than once in terms of strong admiration to the comparatively insignificant ballad of Albert Graeme in "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," while omitting all mention of the finest effort of Scott in this kind, the ballad of "Alice Brand" in "The Lady of the Lake."

The discussion of Byron by F. W. Moorman evinces a surer judgment than Mr. Henderson's pages on Scott's poetry. The chapters on Shelley and Keats from the pen of C. H. Herford, however, constitute the best pieces of criticism that the present volume offers. We have here a frequent subtlety of observation and felicity of phrasing which is wanting in the chapters on Scott and Byron. Noteworthy, for example, is the remark as to the element of Godwin's doctrine of free love in "Epipsychidion," which is sublimated there, however, into the "Platonic faith that love permeates the universe, and cannot, therefore, be completely mirrored in the facet of any one human form"; or, again, with reference to Jupiter's speeches in the "Prometheus Unbound," the comment that Shelley's ardor compels "even the forces of evil to speak in accents like his, as if secretly persuaded of the fatuity of their own cause." The conclusion of the chapter suggests, happily, also, the metaphysical side of Shelley's genius, which gives such subtlety and radiance to his verse, in the remark that apart from his invention of consummate lyrical harmonies "to some, he will be not less precious for the glimpses given, in 'Adonais' and in 'The Defence of Poetry,' of a doctrine of universal being more consonant than any other with the nature of poetry." On the other hand, like most writers on Shelley, Professor Herford virtually ignores the patent defects of the poet's character and work. Apart from his conduct to Harriet Westbrook, which no one would ever have condoned, if he had not been a man of genius, there is no use in blinking the fact that there was a serious decline of sympathy, to say the least of it, between Shelley and his second wife in the last year or two of his life. No woman could maintain an undiminished affection for a husband whom she had seen fall a victim to successive infatuations like those which enslaved Shelley for the time being to Emilia Viviani and Jane Williams. And on Shelley's side poems like "The serpent is shut out from paradise" and "When the lamp is shattered" speak for themselves. As with Shelley's character, so with his works. No one would imagine from Professor Herford's account of his "great revolutionary epic," "The Revolt of Islam," that Shelley exhibits in this poem an almost complete helplessness when confronted with the task of constructing a narrative.

Next to Professor Herford's discussions of Shelley and Keats the best chapters in the volume are those contributed by Prof. George Saintsbury, *viz.*, Lesser Poets, 1790-1837, and The Landors, Leigh Hunt, De Quincey. The writer's superabundant vitality imparts life to even so unpromising a theme as the Lesser Poets. We have still further chapters on the great essayists of the period, Hazlitt and Lamb, the former by Prof. W. D. Howe (the only American contributor to the volume), the latter by A. Hamilton Thompson. Harold Child deals with Jane Austen and the Lesser Novelists, respectively, W. H. Hutton with the Oxford Movement, F. E. Hutchinson with the Growth of Liberal Theology (Maurice, F. W. Robertson, etc.), Sir A. W. Ward with the Historians (Macaulay and Carlyle not included), and Sir J. E. Sandys with Scholars, Antiquaries, and Bibliographers.

The bibliographies at the end make up nearly a third of the entire volume. They are compiled with great care, but the following additions to the section on Byron seem desirable: (1) The collection of fourteen letters (not included in Prothero's standard edition) privately printed in 1912 for the Dofobs Society (Chicago). We may remark, in passing, that there are still a good many unprinted Byron letters, like those (addressed to Sir J. B. Burgess) that were sold at Sotheby's in 1912; (2) the article on the "Stanzas to the Po," perhaps, Byron's finest lyrical poem, by J. D. Bruce, in *Modern Language Notes* for December, 1909, where it is shown from a passage in Moore's "Diary" that the message which the poet sends to the Countess Guiccioli by the river was suggested by the address of the dying Hungarian soldier to the Danube in the Travels of Busbequius; (3) Karl König's interesting dissertation (Freiburg in Baden) on "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," in which it is pointed out that Byron's criticisms of the "Bards" are drawn in a considerable measure from the very "Reviewers" (of the *Edinburgh Review*) whom he so fiercely denounces—in some instances are hardly more than metrical paraphrases of the words of the latter; (4) Friedrich Brie's "Byron-Studien" in "Englische Studien" for 1915. This article, which doubtless appeared too late to be included in the bibliography, is the most important on the subject of Byron that has been published for some years. The author calls attention to a new Byron source which has hitherto passed entirely unnoticed—namely, the works of a forgotten French novelist, J. P. C. de Florian, who flourished at the end of the eighteenth century. The plot of "The Corsair" is on the face of it lifted bodily from "Gonzalve de Cordoue" (1791), a pseudo-historical romance of this writer's. Brie argues with much force, besides, that in the general conception of "Don Juan" Byron was following de Florian's "La jeunesse de Florian ou les mémoires d'un jeune Espagnol" (1807).

Furthermore, we have here credited to John Murray the searching criticism—"Lord Byron and his Detractors" (1906)—of the hideous charges which Lord Lovelace in his "Astarte" brought against his grandfather's memory. We know now from Mr. Murray himself that the real author of this book was E. H. Pember. Finally, Professor Herford, misled, like the rest of the world, by a statement of Joseph Severn's, speaks of Keats's sonnet, "Bright Star! would I were steadfast as thou art," as his last poem. Sir Sidney Colvin, however, has noted (the London *Times*, Literary Supplement, for February 19, 1915) that a copy of this sonnet, in the handwriting of Keats's friend, Charles Brown, with a few slight differences, is in existence, dated 1819.

A TURNING POINT IN ROMAN IMPERIAL POLICY.

The Defeat of Varus and the German Frontier Policy of Augustus. By William A. Oldfather and Howard Vernon Canter. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois. 75 cents net.

This monograph is devoted to the investigation of two points of no small interest in Roman and in German history, *viz.*, the question whether the Romans had made or intended to make a province of those western parts of Germany which their armies had traversed in the days of Augustus, and the further question whether, if that had been their intention, the great battle of the Teutoburger Wald, in which Quintilius Varus was defeated and the bulk of his army destroyed, caused them to reconsid-

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er that policy and ultimately to leave Germany outside the boundary of the Empire. The two authors, both of the University of Illinois, have brought wide research to bear upon the subject, have consulted a great many of the recent books bearing on it, and have produced a really good piece of work, careful and intelligent, and giving evidence of a painstaking study of the problems of Roman frontier policy in general.

The authors begin by stating the two assumptions made by most modern historians, which it is their aim to refute. These are: (1) That Augustus proposed to subdue northwestern Germany, reducing it to the form of a province, and (2) that when this purpose had been nearly accomplished, the defeat of Varus (A. D. 9), the most serious reverse which outer barbarians had inflicted upon Roman arms since that which Crassus had suffered at the hands of the Parthians, changed this purpose and made him and his successors abandon the hope of conquering the Germans east of the Rhine.. These may fairly be called assumptions, because no ancient writer expressly gives us either statement (in the form aforesaid) as a fact, although most modern writers have taken their words, and the events they record, as warranting the view which this book is meant to controvert.

Our authors begin by showing that what the Romans are recorded to have done in the territory they invaded east of the Rhine does not support, but rather tends to negative, the assumption that they meant to add that territory to the Empire. They did not make roads through it, they did not build permanent bridges over the rivers, they did not erect any considerable fortified camps or castles, they did not found colonies, they did not create an army or high military command distinct from that of the armies which held Gaul. They made repeated expeditions, sometimes in great force, into the country, but did not do this on such systematic plans as would have been followed if a permanent subjugation had been contemplated. Our authors then proceed to argue that such a systematic subjugation of the wide area between the Rhine and Elbe would have been an undertaking too difficult to be entertained by cautious and prudent rulers like Augustus and Tiberius. There was perhaps some glory to be won in the eyes of the Roman populace, but less with the army, which hated campaigns in a cold, wet, unprofitable forest-covered country such as was Germany. It was becoming none too easy to raise troops, and the holding down of a mass of war-like and restless tribes would impose a further strain. The Empire would have found no better frontier along the Elbe than it already had on the Rhine, and might just as well be tempted to advance from the Elbe to the Oder and from the Oder to the Vistula.

The true aim and purpose of the Roman invasions is accordingly—so the treatise argues—to be found not in a desire to annex territory, but in an effort to frighten the Germans. The expeditions were partly punitive, like those which the English are frequently obliged to make against the Pathan tribes of Afghanistan when the latter raid the northwestern frontier of India, partly exhibitions of Roman military power on a scale sufficient to terrify the barbarians. By such means and by a diplomacy which sought to sow discord among the tribes and win some of them over to be the friends of Rome, the Emperors tried to avoid the necessity of having to add fresh provinces to their dominion.

If this view be correct, the defeat of Varus loses that supreme significance which the patriotic enthusiasm of modern Germany has assigned to it. It is to be deemed merely an incident, alarming Rome and warning her of the risks her armies ran, even in wars with barbarous races, but it does not mark the end of a policy of conquest. By this view, accordingly, Arminius is deposed from the position of the national hero, who once for all saved German freedom and German nationality, for the plan he is supposed to have frustrated never existed at all.

These reasonings, which we have been obliged to abridge in this statement, go some way to shake the assumptions above referred to. In particular, the fact that the Roman armies on several occasions, after the defeat of Varus, traversed Germany, and that they vanquished the tribes on the only two occasions on which the latter ventured to meet them in the field, must be allowed great weight. Distressed as Augustus was by the catastrophe of the Teutoburger Wald, he acted after it just as he had acted before, when, while he was directing expeditions to traverse the country and strike terror into the tribes, he was not taking the steps which would have been natural had his intent been to subdue it thoroughly, fetter it by fortresses, and turn it into a province. A parallel case, not referred to in this book, may be found in northern Britain. There is nothing to show that the Romans ever meant to make Caledonia a province. But they not only marched into it and defeated the wild tribes, but they established, in the unconquered territory, more than twenty miles beyond their outermost wall of defence (the Wall of Antoninus from the Forth to the Clyde), and maintained for a long period, a large fortified camp at Ardoch (in Perthshire), which was doubtless intended to overawe the barbarians and remind them of Roman power. The writers of this treatise cannot be said to have completely proved their case, for there are certain authorities pointing the other way whose weight they have not removed. They have, however, succeeded in showing that the Varus battle (Varus-schlacht, as the Germans call it) was not such an epoch-making event, and the cause of such a decisive change of frontier policy, as has been believed by those patriots who have tried to consecrate Arminius, "der Hermann, der edle Recke," as the national hero.

This discussion points to two further highly interesting questions. The first is: Could the Romans have subjugated the country west of the Elbe, from the North Sea southward to the river Main, made a province of it, and held it for as long as they held Britain, *i. e.*, till the beginning of the fifth century? It seems probable that they could. There can hardly have been more than a million Germans, say 250,000 fighting men, and probably far less, within that area. These Germans were divided by tribal feuds. They were inferior to the Romans in arms and discipline, and the Empire had still plenty of good soldiers. The other question is more speculative. How would the provincialization of western and middle Germany have affected the Empire and the Germans themselves? Would they have been Romanized, like the Gauls? Would their valor and intelligence have brought vivifying elements into the Empire and prolonged its life? There were also some great Teutonic tribes or tribe groups east of the Elbe. What influence would a Romanized Germany have had upon them? Would the great barbarian migrations of the fifth and sixth centuries have taken place? Large questions these—on which, insoluble as they are, one cannot refrain from speculating.

A PAN-AMERICAN BIBLIOGRAPHY.

A Brief Bibliography of Books in English, Spanish, and Portuguese Relating to the Republics Commonly Called Latin-American. With Comments. By Peter H. Goldsmith. New York: The Macmillan Co. 50 cents.

It is significant of interest in Pan-American matters that this volume should have been prepared by the Director of the Pan-American Division of the American Association for International Conciliation. As a bibliography it has very serious faults, not only of commission, but more particularly of omission; as a human document, showing an agreeable mixture of pedantry, superficiality, and patronizing aloofness, it is a delight. The author states in his preface that the earlier lists of books relating to Latin-America "are entirely wanting in critical comment" and "have failed to supply the urgent demand that exists for guidance in buying and reading." Accordingly, "to meet this want the present little book, which disclaims all pretence to completeness in the bibliographical sense, was hastily compiled. Amid the pressure of work the compiler found it necessary to confine himself to listing only such books as could be readily come at in the libraries of the city of New York."

It is all very well to disclaim pretence to completeness, for a complete bibliography of this subject would fill many large volumes, and this is only a small volume and contains but 302 titles. There is abundant evidence that it was "hastily compiled," but it is open to grave doubt whether a bibliographer who aims to guide the public in reading and buying books has any right to bring forth so hasty a compilation. Furthermore, there

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must be something decidedly curious in the administration of our libraries when a list of "such books as could be readily come at" does not include such classics as W. T. Brigham's "Guatemala," Whymper's "Travels Among the Great Andes of the Equator," Andre's "Naturalist in the Guianas" (termed a classic by no less an authority on South America than the late Col. George Earl Church, himself a writer of whom Mr. Goldsmith does not appear to have heard), or Sarmiento's "Civilization and Barbarism," one of the most famous books relating to South America. And what shall be said of the omission of all reference to such distinguished and prolific South American authors as Barros Arana, Vicuña Mackenna, or Ricardo Palma, not to mention a host of others?

There are the most extraordinary inclusions and omissions. To Kingsborough's "Antiquities of Mexico," with its contents listed as several separate items, have been given nearly four pages, an altogether disproportionate amount in a book of only 107 pages; while A. P. Maudslay, both as author and as editor, has been entirely overlooked; and so has John L. Stephens, whose celebrated volumes on Central America and Yucatan have long been acknowledged classics of their kind. Space has been found for eleven books on Paraguay, but the list does not include the names of Cunninghame Graham, Barbrooke Grubb, or the Robertson brothers, and yet they would naturally be included in a list only half as long. Savage Landor takes nearly half a page, but Algot Lange gets no space at all! Bullard's "Panama" is on the list, while Bunau-Varilla's "Panama" is not. There are twenty-eight titles for Brazil, but no place is found for Pearson's "The Rubber Country of the Amazon," notwithstanding the recognized authority with which the author was able to write; nor for Neville B. Craig's fascinating "Recollections of an Ill-Fated Expedition." In short, such haphazard selection denotes a hastiness in compilation that is absolutely inexcusable in a reader's guide of this sort.

With regard to the "critical comment," some of it is excellent, but one's faith in the commentator is destroyed by his pedantry and superficiality. It may be said in his excuse that no man could pass judgment on 302 titles and please every one; to which the obvious answer is that when a man sets out to guide the buying and reading public by critical comment on available books, he assumes a very serious responsibility, and one that cannot be met by hasty compilation "amid the pressure of work." A few quotations will be sufficient to show the style of criticism. Akers's standard "History of South America" is called "a jumble of surnames, statistics, unimportant fragments of history, trivial generalizations, bad English, and inconsistent Spanish orthography"! Mr. Goldsmith's patronizing reference to Lord Bryce's "South America" is delicious: "The style is so admirable that one is disposed to forgive the misapprehensions and consequent misinterpretations which sprang from the natural limitations to which he was subjected"! The publishers of the "Bibliography" are at least to be commended for their candor; Carson's "Mexico," which they brought out a few years ago, and have recently advertised again, is called "one of the most inaccurate, superficial, and trivial of the numerous works which have misrepresented and belittled Mexico during these latter years." Of Fraser's "Amazing Argentine," which some reviewers have thought very well of, Mr. Goldsmith says: "The title indicates the style of superficial chatter which composes this book." Of Flandrau's "Viva Mexico," too well known to need further comment here, the bibliographer spoils his note of approbation by commencing with the apologetic "pardoning the inexcusable butchering of the Spanish introduced——"!

Those who are already familiar with the literature of the subject will find considerable amusement in watching Mr. Goldsmith deal out praise and blame; but those who are unfamiliar with it are warned that a list "with comments" such as those herein contained is useful only as an indication of the personal opinions and prejudices of one whose superficial acquaintance with the subject is so unblushingly exhibited in his acknowledged methods of selection.

ASBURY AND METHODISM.

Francis Asbury: The Prophet of the Long Road. By Ezra Squier Tipple. New York: Methodist Book Concern. $1.50.

The Methodist revival of the eighteenth century in England was comparable, in its relation to and effect on the English Church, with the Reformation, in its relation to and effect on the Roman Church, except that, so far as England was concerned, the effect of the Methodist movement was relatively greater on the Church itself than was the effect of the Reformation on the Roman Church, great as that was. It was not in England, but in America, that Methodism, as a separate organization, achieved its greatest importance and its greatest influence.

It seems strange that, in a country so democratic, so given to self-government as England, the leadership of the most popular and democratic religious movements should have been absolutely autocratic. John Wesley was as supreme an autocrat in the Methodist movement in England as any Pope has ever been, and the same was true of Gen. Booth and his Salvation Army. They were one-man movements. The English Reformation was a national movement, dominated by the Government and bound up with it. On this account it was a movement of compromise, quite in contrast with the Methodist and Salvation Army movements, headed by one remarkable, dominant, self-appointed autocrat, followed by an obedient, active army. In a sense, the latter, in spite of its imperialism, will always be the more democratic form of movement.

In this country, Christian Science and Mormonism are specimens of the same type of religious development. Methodism, however, pursued a different course, and that it did so is largely due to Asbury. It would seem as though Wesley, when he ordained Coke as superintendent and sent him to America to join with himself two others, one of whom was Asbury, did not contemplate the formal organization of a new movement with Episcopal government, administering the Sacraments, but rather a church within a church, the body of Methodists constituting, as it were, a sort of order within the English Church, with its own organization under superintendents, somewhat comparable to Ignatius Loyola's order within the Church of Rome. The weakness of the English Church in this country, the predominance of other religious organizations, not recognizing or depending upon apostolical succession, the personality and force of the men whom Wesley sent out, and the need of administration of the Sacraments, which could not be provided by the weak Episcopal Church, led to the almost immediate formation of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

It is interesting to see that, from the outset, Asbury insisted upon a form of self-government which Methodism in England, under the autocratic control of Wesley, had never known. He, an Englishman by birth and by early training, seems to have absorbed much of that American spirit which led the greatest political leaders of this country to submit themselves to the popular will and vote. So he refused to accept Episcopal ordination as deacon, elder, and bishop, and step outside of the ranks of the preaching laity to which he belonged, not entitled to administer the Sacrament, until the matter had been submitted to the conference of Methodist preachers. At the Revolution he was the only one of the English-born Methodist leaders, up to that time the directors of the Methodist movement in this country, who elected to remain in America and to be, in fact, an American, although theoretically he never became an American citizen.

Dr. Tipple's book is a picture of this remarkable man, whom he calls "the prophet of the Long Road," because he never knew home and had no wife or family, but lived all his life on the road, moving from place to place, preaching and organizing. John Wesley and his brother Charles, the latter through his hymns, the Psalmody of the new movement, without which Methodism never could have won the hearts of the people, furnished the theology, the religious principle behind the whole Methodist movement, but the organizer and founder of the Methodist Episcopal Church was really Francis Asbury. A rigid disciplinarian and a born general, he won the admiration, the love, and the devotion of his followers by himself enduring more hardships than he ever asked of another, sharing with his soldiers in the privations of their campaigns, accepting for himself no more than the bar-

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est pittance of his lowliest comrade. At the same time he knew every man and was affectionately solicitous for his personal welfare and condition. Above all, however, he was supremely anxious for the cause he served. Ready to lay down his life for that cause, he demanded the same of every one else and promoted or demoted according to the need of the cause, with an impersonality strangely in contrast with the personal interest which he showed in each follower.

He ruled by the form of popular government, not as an autocrat; but so great was the power of his personality that the rule of Methodism in America was as much that of Asbury as it had been of Wesley in England. His is the story of a man suffering, as Paul in his Epistles says he suffered, from a "thorn in the flesh," only apparently more constantly. Like Paul, he bore the most enormous burdens, living a life that seems to the outsider singularly distressing and sad, and yet which evidently was a life of great joy to Asbury. He was almost as ascetic as a monk in his life, as stern and gloomy as a Puritan, regarding as sinful the merriment and mirth which seem to have been part of his nature and which would bubble out at times.

Judging from the accounts of his sermons, hell-fire played a large part in them, and yet the constant testimony is that the result of his preaching was to bring great peace, a sense of religious satisfaction, and of personal union with God. One is amazed at the accounts of the effect of the preaching of the Methodists in those days. With such power do some of the preachers hold forth that multitudes fall down before them, literally swept off their feet and cast to the ground. It reads like the account of a modern battle and of the physical destruction resulting from the discharge of great artillery. Curiously irreligious, a physical frenzy, one would think it, and yet clearly the most remarkable ethical and spiritual results ensued. Methodism wrought a moral revival in England, as Lecky has pointed out. The England of to-day would not be what it is in moral strength without Wesley, and the American nation owes much in every way to the religious movement which Francis Asbury organized and developed in this country.

This book is written by a Methodist, in Methodist fashion, for Methodists. It probably will not be attractive to most who are not of that persuasion. It is not a systematic account of Asbury's life. Dates, events, sequences are not clearly set forth. Sometimes the iterations and reiterations help, however, to give a more vivid picture of the man and his surroundings. At times the enthusiasm of the writer brings a stirring appeal into his story, giving a vivid and graphic picture and carrying the reader along by force. On the whole, however, the book is not well organized. It is, moreover, intensely partisan, an admiring, indiscriminating appreciation of Asbury, but it is far from being a history of the man or his work.

THE HISTORY OF SCIENCE AND LOGIC.

The Positive Sciences of the Ancient Hindus. By Brajendranath Seal. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $4.

These seven chapters on the philosophy of evolution, chemistry (atomic theory), mechanics (kinetics), acoustics, plant and animal life, physiology (biology), and methodology of the Hindus, are in part reprints from earlier writings. But most of the matter is new and all of it will attract those concerned with the history of science and logic.

In his Foreword, Mr. Seal assigns the main body of positive knowledge presented in these pages "to the millennium 500 B. C.-500 A. D." In fact, however, as Mr. Seal himself points out in each instance, the latter date, or a still later period, represents the time when, so far as we know, most of the theories and the mass of knowledge here discussed were first known. Only philosophy and perhaps surgery belong to the earlier period and justify the Foreword. True, one can assume a considerable extent of time as background to the extant works. Scholars who cannot prove the existence of the Veda before 1000 B. C. argue thus, generously add one or two thousand years as "background," and complacently date the Rig Veda "circa 2000-3000 B. C." But in a scientific book it is better to be scientific than to imitate the Veda-historians. The medical data here presented belong in general to our era, not before it, and most of them are not older than the sixth century A. D. To this period belongs the knowledge of how to extract the principle of indigotin from the indigo plant by (essentially) "modern chemical methods"; how to prepare fast dyes; and how to temper steel. To the same century also reverts the scientific process of preparing sticks to "make light without fire" and drugs to produce anæsthesia; while sulphide of mercury is first prepared (so far as the evidence goes) in the tenth century A. D.

The author thinks that the *redacteur* of the extant "Charaka" imported into that work most of the surgical knowledge of the "Suçruta." But neither of these oft-cited works in its present form represents the original. Our "Charaka" is a revision of an older work, which again was a redaction of the still older work of Agniveça by the (original) "Charaka." But no man to-day knows what was the contents of the first book in this series. It cannot possibly be maintained, unless the fact is otherwise corroborated, that what in any particular instance is contained in the "Charaka" or "Suçruta" of to-day was part of the knowledge of the Hindus prior to the Christian era. The Great Epic of India, which knows Agniveça and his teacher, knows nothing of "Charaka."

Biologists will first be amused by the statement in old texts that plants can develop from inorganic matter and may then be interested in the later Hindu repudiation of this idea, as also in the native theory of heredity. The germ-cell contains *in potentia* the whole organism developed out of it, but it does not contain the developed organs; hence later acquired traits are not reproduced in the new organism. Mathematicians may learn from these pages how Bhāskara (in the twelfth century A. D.) anticipated Newton by discovering the principle of the differential calculus (the reviewer is not competent to judge the worth of this "claim"). As to Harvey's *Prioritätsrecht*, Mr. Seal conservatively says that the ancient Hindus had "some idea of the circulation of blood"; he adds that they had no idea of the purification of blood by the lungs. Dissection and postmortems were practiced (perhaps) as early as the fourth century B. C. Logicians will be glad to read the final chapter on the Hindu syllogism.

These are samples of what one may find in Mr. Seal's valuable thesaurus. It remains to indicate some small defects. The author translates correctly, but he combines his words with a curious disregard of grammatical propriety. In one short passage, on page 20, the text has three glaring errors, and on page 176 seven verses contain three more, not to speak of others which may be due to careless printing (as *tasmāt vartamāna* cannot be). One wonders whether the scientific mind even in India scorns the correct use of language. These verses, by the way, are cited from the epic "Cānti," that is, a book nearly fourteen thousand verses long. Is this a fair way to treat a reader? It is difficult to verify a quotation with so casual a reference (it should have been to Mbh. xii. 184, 11-16). Is it not time that Hindu writers who write for Occidental readers gave up such slip-shod methods of citation? A recent book on the "Arya-Samāj" even gives the Sanskrit text of one verse and its translation (!) by Englishing another verse (apparently picked up near by), as if to prove that the author pretends to a knowledge of Sanskrit which he does not possess. This is not the case with Mr. Seal. He knows his Sanskrit and needs only to be a little more careful in transcribing and in citing to be quite satisfactory.

But these are trifles. And so is the author's invention of such words as "isobhautic." Surely, however, chemical English is horrible enough already without adding to it Greek-Sanskrit compounds; though the reviewer, who was once fooled into spending some time in guessing at the etymology of formaldehyde, confesses to a certain pleasure in imagining his chemical friends trying to find out what the new horrors mean. We trust that in Mr. Seal's forthcoming Studies in Comparative Philosophy, to which, in view of the excellent work he has done in the present volume, we extend a hearty welcome in advance, he may take to heart these not unkindly meant animadversions and remember when writing for the Occident that it is not the Orient he is writing for. Correct Sanskrit for one thing and the clearest possible language for another. What is clear there is not always clear here.

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Notes

Harper & Brothers announce the publication this week of "The Crimson Gardenia and Other Tales of Adventure," by Rex Beach.

The following volumes are announced as forthcoming by E. P. Dutton & Co.: "A Book for Shakespeare Plays and Pageants," by O. L. Hatcher; "Advanced Accounts," by R. N. Carter; "Thinking as a Science," by Henry Hazlitt; "In the Wake of the War Canoe," by W. H. Collinson.

Dodd, Mead & Co. announce for publication on Saturday: "Mr. and Mrs. Pierce," by Cameron Mackenzie; "The Light that Lies," by George Barr McCutcheon; "The Second Coming," by Frederic Arnold Kummer and Henry P. James; "Feminism," by Mr. and Mrs. John Martin; "G. K. Chesterton: A Critical Study," by Julius West; "First Base Faulkner," by "Christy" Mathewson.

"New Homes Under Old Roofs," by Joseph S. Seabury, and "Fifty Years of a Civilized Force," by Harry C. Brearley, will be published in May by Frederick A. Stokes Co.

"The Desire of the Moth," by Eugene Manlove Rhodes, and "A Northern Countryside," by Rosalind Richards, are announced for publication on Saturday by Henry Holt & Co.

The Putnams announce the forthcoming publication of the following volumes: "Star of the North," by Francis William Sullivan; "The Hermit Doctor of Gaya," by I. A. R. Wylie; "The Night Cometh," by Paul Bourget; "War, Peace, and the Future," by Ellen Key; "The Gate of Asia," by William Warfield; "On the Art of Writing," by Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch; "Revelation and the Life to Come," edited with an introduction by the author of "The Way: The Nature and Means of Revelation"; "Ships in Port," by Lewis Worthington Smith; "The Caliph's Secret and Other Verses," by M. A. B. Evans.

The summer meetings this year of the National Education Association and the American Library Association occur in successive weeks and in the same neighborhood. The thirty-eighth annual conference of the librarians will be held June 26 to July 1 at Asbury Park, N. J., followed in the next week by the fifty-fourth meeting of the teachers, in New York. Opportunity will thus be afforded for discussion of mutual problems. The secretary of the Library Association is George B. Utley, 78 East Washington Street, Chicago.

The latest additions to the Oxford Garland series (Oxford University Press) are "Epigrams" and "Songs for Music," both selected and edited by R. M. Leonard. In the former brochure the reader will find a small repast flavored with the characteristic salt and vinegar with which there is less cause to quarrel than in the latter. In his collection of epigrams Mr. Leonard has left little to be desired, old and tried friends appearing with their perennial freshness in an art for which this age has small leisure. Nowadays the ephemeral files of newspapers are not wholly lacking in good examples. We recall faintly from memory the following lines in a Canadian newspaper, when McGill University bestowed an LL.D. on Rudyard Kipling, subsequent to his critical illness in New York:

> Why are you so late, McGill?
> Where were you when our friend was ill?
> Is it right to wait until
> He's well, to Doctor him?

Many of Mr. Leonard's selections are rewarding and unfamiliar. We do not remember seeing the following, in which Warren Hastings's gentle spirit turns upon his famous accuser:

> Oft have I wondered that on Irish ground
> A poisonous reptile never yet was found;
> Nature, though slow, will yet complete her work;
> She saved her venom to create a Burke.

Here also are Tennyson's "Fusty" Christopher and Dean Stubbs's lines on Froude and Kingsley, but the following on the scholarly French Ambassador at Washington will bear quoting:

> A Frenchman, straying into English fields
> Of letters, seldom has a *locus standi*.
> But if there's one to whom objection yields,
> 'Tis Jusserand—he has the *jus errandi*.

There is also the following from the same hand, that of Canon Ainger:

> Our English critics their dull wits keep straining,
> When—enter TAINE!—and all is entertaining.

If lacking in Pope's caustic elegance, there is no doubt that Blake wrote with characteristic bluntness of his patron Hayley:

> Thy friendship oft has made my heart to ache;
> Do be my enemy—for friendship's sake.

Lastly, it is a pleasure to find the only American besides Emerson in Mr. Leonard's collection, the late Father Tabb, represented by his beautiful verse on Father Damien:

> O God, the cleanest offering
> Of tainted earth below,
> Unblushing to thy feet we bring—
> *"A leper white as snow!"*

The "Life Story of Edith Cavell" is told in an unpretentious volume entitled "A Noble Woman," by Ernest Protheroe (Abingdon Press; 40 cents net). So far as the life is concerned it is a simple story soon told, a story of quiet, unostentatious devotion to the cause of humanity. Before that day in October, last year, when the civilized world blazed out with the tale of German infamy, few not connected with the nursing profession had ever heard the name of Edith Cavell. In her own profession it was well known. Born in 1866, the daughter of a country rector near Norwich (those quiet rectories of England have deserved well of their country), Miss Cavell received a sound education, which was completed at a school in Brussels. In 1895 she entered the London Hospital as a probationer, and from that time to the end of her life she served her chosen profession, as nurse and as organizer, with skill and distinction. She took charge of the newly founded nursing home in Brussels in 1906, and from small beginnings and in face of considerable prejudice worked it up to the position of a considerable and highly esteemed institution. The outbreak of war found her in England enjoying a holiday. She immediately returned to Brussels, and for twelve months, until her arrest on August 5 at a moment when she was engaged in binding the wound of a German soldier, she devoted herself to the impartial care of the wounded of both sides.

All this is narrated in twenty-eight pages of Mr. Protheroe's volume. The rest of the book is taken up with the account, still fresh in the world's memory, of the martyrdom of this noble woman. The author makes no pretence of judicial impartiality, and there is no reason why he should; the facts speak for themselves, and if they did not the German military authorities would be condemned out of the cynical mouth of Dr. Zimmermann, Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, whose defence of the murder served only to point the difference between Prussian processes of reasoning and those of civilized peoples. The effect of Dr. Zimmermann's defence was further heightened by the subsequent inspired circulation of calumnies such as that Miss Cavell "nursed only rich people for heavy fees." It is improbable that the exact details of Miss Cavell's execution will ever be known. Mr. Protheroe repeats, as he is bound to, the heartrending stories circulated in the Dutch press at the time. What is known beyond suspicion of doubt is the heroic effort made by Mr. Brand Whitlock and his associates of the United States Ministry and by the Spanish Minister, the Marquis de Villalobar, to combat the secrecy and prevarication which characterized throughout the conduct of the unspeakable von der Lancken and von Bissing in hurrying this defenceless woman to summary execution after the mockery of a trial. It is well that the world, and particularly the neutral world, whose memory is apt to be short, should be reminded of these things. For England and her allies this volume will serve as one more memorial of the many that have been raised or are in process of being raised to a noble woman, to whom one of the finest tributes paid, of those quoted by Mr. Protheroe, was that of M. Clemenceau, who wrote in *L'Homme Enchaîné:* "Since the day of Joan of Arc, to whose memory I know that the British will one day wish to erect a statue, Great Britain has owed us this return. She has given it nobly."

Of "English Coast Defences from Roman Times to the Early Years of the Nineteenth Century," by George Clinch (London: G. Bell & Sons; 5s. net), it suffices to say that it is antiquarian in character and local in interest. Given its range in time, obviously its 217 12mo pages, printed in large type, double-spaced, and much broken by illustrations, leave but little room for anything more than a sort of catalogue of the various castles, forts, blockhouses, etc., that have served to protect the coast of England against oversea expeditions. The volume could serve as a guidebook to the sites described; indeed, had the author added railway time-tables, and some account of inns, its character as such would have been established beyond all doubt. This is not to say that the book is without interest. For example, the brief account of the Roman organization to protect the southeast coast of England fixes the attention, and makes us wish that the author had seen fit to extend it. For here we have real coast defence, in the modern sense of the term. A gap of over a thousand years separates the Roman effort from that made in Henry VIII's time, to put the coast in a proper state of defence. At no time in its history does England appear to have been free, we shall not say of the fear, but of the possibility, of invasion from the Continent. This little book, so far as it goes, may well serve a useful purpose.

The widespread interest of the present day in American shipping problems makes a new edition of John R. Spears's "The Story of

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the American Merchant Marine" (Macmillan; $1.50 net), published originally in 1910, and reviewed in these columns (May 19, 1910, p. 516), most timely. The new material is contained in an interesting essay, constituting an introduction of twenty-seven pages, in which are summarized the leading events in the history of our merchant shipping since the outbreak of the European war. Following the first demoralizing effects of the war, there came a rapid recovery when the British Government permitted coal to be exported for the Italian railways, when the Italian Government began to purchase grain in the United States and Argentina, and when there arose in the neutral countries bordering upon the Central Powers the extraordinary demand for food products. In the meantime, the taking to cover of some two thousand German and over four hundred Austrian merchantmen, most of which had been engaged in the overseas trade, and the commandeering for war purposes of some fifteen hundred French and German ships, resulted in the withdrawal from foreign service of from 10 to 15 per cent. of all deep-water carriers. This decrease, coming as it did at the very time of a rapidly growing demand for freighters, especially on the North Atlantic, caused a most natural and inevitable rise in freight rates—a rise which continues to be the subject of comment at the present day. Such conditions could not fail to bring home to the American public "a sudden appreciation of the fact that the appeals for an American merchant marine, which had been heard with but languid attention theretofore, were based on something more than mere sentiment." This feeling was all the more intense because American ships, being neutral, were less likely to be troubled by the warring nations than those of the belligerents. Mr. Spears gives due attention to the Panama Canal act of 1912, the act of August 18, 1914, eliminating the "five-year clause" respecting the purchase of ships abroad, and the so-called Seaman's act of March 4, 1915. This discussion of the later history, together with an illuminating presentation of such topics as "the kind of ships [which] carried the flag in the old days, when it swept the seven seas; how far and in what respects they were, as so frequently declared by the half-informed, 'the best afloat'; what a ship as a transportation unit consists of; how and from what beginnings our shipping was developed, and exactly why there was a decadence during a long period recently past," should result in placing before the intelligent American reader the facts necessary to enable him to decide for himself as to the best policy for dealing with our merchant marine.

Gen. William E. Doster's "Lincoln and Episodes of the Civil War" (Putnam; $1.50 net), while miscellaneous in its contents, has more of historical value than many of the books of Civil War reminiscence which have of late appeared in such considerable numbers. The author was provost-marshal of Washington in 1862-63, and also one of the counsel for the defence in the trial of the conspirators against Lincoln. His account of his experiences in the former capacity affords interesting glimpses of Washington life during the earlier years of the war, and of the difficult and perplexing conditions which attended the maintenance of law and order, the detection of plots against the Government, the repression of contraband trade, and the administration of the Federal prison. The author pays a deserved tribute to Gen. James S. Wadsworth, his superior officer, whose dignity and courtesy in the performance of routine duties stand out in irritating contrast to the roughness and bad manners of Stanton under similar circumstances. Gen. Doster's description of his unsuccessful efforts to obtain for the accused persons, in the conspiracy trials of 1865, the just treatment to which, however hateful their offence, they were rightfully entitled adds something to the official accounts of that episode. The absence of an index is to be regretted.

Free government is not the exclusive patrimony of any single race or nation. Those who wish to understand its basis, workings, and results, must trudge a good many trails, and in doing this they will find Macy and Gannaway's "Comparative Free Government" (Macmillan; $2.25 net), a guide that satisfies every reasonable demand. The book is sufficiently comprehensive in scope, its authors have shown good judgment in the apportioning of space, and they have kept the discussions free from that stilted pedantry which so often mars the elementary textbook. The Governments of England and the United States, as is natural, receive paramount attention: about two-thirds of the volume is given to them. The aim is not so much to describe them as they exist, but rather to show how each in its own sphere attains by somewhat different means the ends for which free government is established. Political institutions are delineated, not described. They are set forth and contrasted as types. And this applies not only to the chapters on English and American government, but to the briefer discussions of political machinery and methods in the countries of Continental Europe. A short account of the progress of popular rule in Chili and the Argentine Republic, by the way, is an acceptable addition to the book. Taken as a whole, the volume is just what one might expect by reason of Professor Macy's association with it. In his full measure of years he has never put his name to anything that was not the embodiment of good method, good material, and good English. This book is no exception. Its literary quality would alone assure it a welcome among teachers of political science.

"The Social Principle," by Horace Holley (Gomme; 75 cents), is a thin volume of tenuous meditations. This social principle—"the fact that society is composed of recurrent types, and that each type has a function which combines individual freedom and happiness with increased social control, is all contained in the Christian concept of love." This love-concept does not mean actual love; "we need only perceive in all men and women some element essential to social stability and hence valuable to ourselves." We all live a life-drama "played behind closed curtains"; suspicion and bitterness abound by reason of our false social relations; one's friendliness to others may vastly increase if one "learns to perceive in others not potential enemies but actual coöperators." And this sort of thing is, of course, along with all the rest of the yearnings, the basis of sociology; "the first question the student should ask about society is, why it acts as a step-down transformer to personality." Well, it is too bad that society acts this way; still, if we study society and its evolution intensively enough, and come to recognize the slow growth and inevitability of what is, we need not be too much cast down over what strikes our sensitized souls as a falsity of social relations. Apparently the mystic is the hero of this tale. One of its many poetic antitheses may be quoted: "Your Protestant sows his seed in a garden so confined as to exclude the sun; your Catholic sows his seed in the unfertile winter of the world."

Those who have occasion to consult the "Collections" of the Wisconsin Historical Society will welcome the appearance of Volume XXI, which is a complete index to the preceding twenty volumes. It will prove most serviceable to the hundreds who interest themselves in the history of the old Northwest. The preparation of this index was a laborious undertaking, planned by the late Doctor Thwaites, and carried forward with commendable assiduity and intelligence by several members of the Society's staff. Numerous tests have shown that the work has been admirably done. Doctor Quaife, in his Prefatory Note, truly says that the world still awaits the perfect index. This important volume, however, will meet all reasonable requirements. The same Society has also issued, in a small edition, No. 1 of its Calendar series, "The Preston and Virginia Papers of the Draper Collection of Manuscripts" (Madison). The riches of the Draper collection are too well known to need mention here, and the simple announcement of the publication of this calendar will suffice to indicate its value to students of the frontier phase of our history. The volume will be followed in due time by others of a similar character. One is tempted to ask why the Wisconsin Historical Society has gone back to funereal black in binding its publications. The color is too suggestive of the dry bones of history The books have a sombre and uninviting appearance upon the shelves.

Dr. Walter Lichtenstein, librarian of Northwestern University, spent seventeen months of the years 1913 and 1914 in South America in search of books, pamphlets, newspapers, and manuscripts for seven prominent libraries of the United States, including Harvard College, the American Antiquarian Society, and the John Carter Brown Library. Dr. Lichtenstein's report of this book-hunting expedition, entitled "A Trip to South America," has recently appeared as a number of the Northwestern University *Bulletin* (Vol. XVI, No. 1). The search was prolonged and thorough, and the results, one would say, were satisfactory to both principals and agent. More than $25,000 was expended for books, and the total amount paid by the institutions was almost $36,000, which shows that the cost of garnering such treasures is not small. The works collected relate for the most part to general literature, law, economics, and history; there were also some rare South American imprints. These latter went to the John Carter Brown Library. The "Doctrina Christiana," printed in Lima in 1584, and mentioned in the *Nation* of August 19, is one of the rarities procured by Dr. Lichtenstein. This volume, probably the first printed in South America, was obtained from the widow of the late librarian of the National Library of Chili, Señor Luis Montt. Dr. Lichtenstein's undertaking was one requiring special qualifications and much tact. So many requests were received from libraries and individuals for copies of "A Trip to South America" that it was found

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necessary to print a second edition. The title-pages of four of the rare items procured from Señor Montt's library are reproduced in excellent facsimile.

It is a far cry back to the Civil War, and in the turmoil of the vaster conflict now raging books relating to the older struggle receive only languid attention. Such are "The Campaigns of the 146th Regiment, New York Volunteers," by Mrs. M. G. G. Brainard (Putnam), and "The History of the 85th Regiment, Pennsylvania Volunteer Infantry," by Luther S. Dickey (L. C. & W. E. Powers). Even in quieter times mere regimental histories, concerned as they necessarily are with details mainly of interest to the participants and their small local circles, have appealed only to a limited public. The regiments commemorated in these volumes were sturdy and long-enduring. The 146th in the Fifth Corps of the Army of the Potomac went through from Fredericksburg to Appomattox, coming home with its standards in shreds and its numbers more than decimated. Mrs. Brainard presents a fair narrative, based everywhere on diaries and letters, clearly told, and made vivid by a pleasant fiction. She identifies herself with the men she celebrates. It is "we" who stem the attack of Longstreet on Little Round Top, and "we" who are driven back by Lee's advance on the first day in the Wilderness. The volume of Mr. Dickey is less well-proportioned. The record of the Eighty-fifth Pennsylvania extends from the autumn of 1861 to the close of the war, being concerned at first in the Peninsula campaign, and later in the Carolinas and around Petersburg. It was in numerous battles of importance, but one-fourth of the book is given up to one, and that an engagement neither considerable nor decisive, as compared with many others on the list. Fair Oaks was a scene of confusion in which the Federal mistakes and ill fortune were balanced by equal blundering and bad luck among the Confederates. It is chiefly memorable as the field in which Joseph E. Johnston was disabled for a year, thus bringing Robert E. Lee to the leadership. The Eighty-fifth Pennsylvania, part of Casy's division in advance, was thrust back, receiving at the time much blame in official documents and otherwise. Mr. Dickey's contention is that the blame was unjust, and he makes out a fair case with tedious and painstaking minuteness. Good soldiers wrongly judged are entitled to a vindication, and possibly it was worth while, though it distorts the story. Few will read the vindication, except perhaps the grandsons and neighbors of the men defended. In general, as regards these books, the world will pay them little heed. The war-drums throb as they never throbbed before, on other fields and for other causes. Nevertheless, in the later crash the voices that commemorate the soldiers of the American Civil War ought not to be quite inaudible, upholding, as these men did, the Union, to-day more than ever the hope of the world.

"History of the Norwegian People," by Knut Gjerset, two volumes (Macmillan; $8 net), is a complete account of Norway from the earliest times to the present day. As a history it is an important achievement. Dr. Gjerset is a thoroughly trained scholar, and has written a carefully documented work—one that depends upon a careful and exhaustive study of original sources. Despite an occasional monotony of style, the work will doubtless remain for some time the standard history of Norway in English. As an expression of the cosmopolitan nature of American culture, it is an interesting phenomenon; for Dr. Gjerset, a Norwegian-American, is professor at the Scandinavian Luther College, at Decorah, Ia. American readers hitherto have been compelled to rely largely on Boyesen's "Story of Norway," an entertaining book, but one making no critical or scholarly pretensions. The first volume of the present work carries the story only to 1319, a date which marks the close of Norway's heroic grandeur and prime international importance. In telling the story of the Vikings, which is in a measure the story of western Europe, Dr. Gjerset is at his best. The exploits of these splendid freebooters in the western sea, their perilous and venturesome voyages, even to remote Greenland and America, though told with the poise proper to an historian, lose none of their romance in his pages. In the controversial questions connected with Ericson's discovery of America the author's attitude is strictly judicial. He presents and weighs the various theories hitherto advanced without expressing his own. He always avoids the temptation to become a special pleader and a national. The second volume is not in all respects so valuable as the first. The history of the five hundred years in which Norway was in effect a province of Denmark can seldom be regarded judicially by a modern Norwegian. In Dr. Gjerset's hands it becomes virtually a history of Denmark told unsympathetically. The spirit of 1814 and 1905 certainly colors his vision. His anxiety to explain the intellectual torpor of his countrymen during the period of union with Denmark leads him to bear rather too heavily on the iniquities of Danish administration, and his eagerness to find signs of national awakening prompts him to some failures of judgment, particularly in matters of literature. The work of Ludwig Holberg, for example, was in fact a reaction of a cosmopolitanly trained mind upon the life of Denmark. Norway contributed little to this versatile man of letters but his place of birth. Yet Dr. Gjerset believes that his appearance is a sign that "the tide had turned, and Norway was giving to Denmark new vigor and intellectual life." His similar enthusiasm for the movement for national independence in the early nineteenth century leads to the common mistake of over-praising the literary importance of the fiery patriot Wergeland, and depreciating that of the critical and conservative Welhaven. The reader, therefore, needs to be forewarned of this national enthusiasm. Once so warned, he can make the necessary reservations, and find the history more engaging and illuminating from the adoption of this national point of view. The book is liberally supplied with maps and illustrations of various sorts.

"Fares, Please! And Other Essays on Practical Themes," by Halford E. Luccock (Abingdon Press; 75 cents net), is a group of little homilies on all sorts of topics connected with belief and conduct. It might be a collection of exceptionally well thought out and neatly put together Sunday evening talks. Catchy headings, such as that of the title essay, a trim firstly-secondly-thirdly method of presentation, an abundance of epigrams, anecdotes, illustrations drawn from the Scriptures, the study, and the street, give these pages their character of popular hortatory appeal. They are too brisk and pointed and purposeful to be properly called essays. But there is much good sense and good feeling in them. They might have attained more dignity as literature if the writer had been less consciously intent upon the purveying of moral stimulants. But the homily rightly looks to its "punch"; this is a wholesome and effective little book of its kind.

"The Literary Primacy of the Bible" is the title of the second series of Mendenhall lectures, delivered at De Pauw University by the Rev. George P. Eckman, D.D. (Methodist Book Concern; $1 net). This lectureship is the foundation of a Methodist minister, and its design is "the exhibition of the proofs, from all sources, of the Divine origin, inspiration, and authority of the Holy Scriptures." Dr. Eckman's object in his lectures has been, as he states, "to lure those who receive them into reading the Bible in precisely the same way they would peruse any other literature which they desired to understand and enjoy." The volume is little more than a consideration of testimonies to the supreme value of the Bible morally, intellectually, spiritually, and from the literary point of view by writers and thinkers from the earliest times down to the present. Some of these testimonies are interesting, and their number and range are astonishing. It will probably be news to most that Hall Caine derived his strongest situations from the Bible. "'The Deemster' is the story of the Prodigal Son. 'The Bondman' is the story of Esau and Jacob. 'The Scapegoat' is the story of Eli and his sons; and 'The Manxman' is the story of David and Uriah." Coleridge called the Epistle to Philemon "the most gentlemanly letter ever written." Napoleon appreciated especially the Pentateuch and "the campaigns of Moses." Alfred de Musset kept the New Testament under his pillow and read it constantly. Carlyle and Gibbon testify to the immortal greatness of the book of Job, and Green, the historian, and Huxley to the profound effect of the Bible in forming not only the literature but also the character of the English people, through its "vast residuum of moral beauty and grandeur."

The eminent English mathematician, Augustus De Morgan, took a lifelong interest in the earnest fools of science who year after year rush into the fields which angels do not attempt to tread. His special hobby was the collection of treatises on squaring the circle, the trisection problem, the duplication of the cube, perpetual motion, and the like; but any bold paradoxer in philosophy, politics, or science was welcome to a place in his gallery of curiosities. For many years he contributed to the *Athenæum* brief anecdotical articles on the books and authors in his library, bristling with learned reference and a dry antiquarian wit. In 1872 these contributions were gathered up and published in book form as "A Budget of Paradoxes." Prof. David Eugene Smith, of Teachers College, Columbia University, a mathematician with similiar interest in the curious literature of his subject, declares the work "one of the most delicious bits of satire of the nineteenth century"; and indeed there is much in it that may be relished without a mathematical preparation of the palate. Professor Smith has supplied the "Budget" with frequent necessary notes of elucidation, and it is now re-

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published in two respectable volumes by the Open Court Publishing Co. (Chicago; $3.50 net).

Anatole France's "The Path of Glory" (Lane; $1.50 net) may be accepted, like the offer of his sword earlier in the war, as the patriotic gesture of an old man of letters. The volume is a miscellany of occasional pieces, printed in both French and English, including a salute to King Albert of Belgium, an article, "For Christmas, 1914," a few letters to and from soldiers at the front, letters to newspapers, a dialogue between Xerxes and Demaratus, "after Herodotus," bearing on the "barbarian" invasion, an invocation to the "just and magnanimous" American Union, and a brief commemorative notice by Edouard Champion of Jean-Pierre Barbier, a young writer who died on the field of battle. There are portraits of Anatole France and Barbier, and a facsimile of the former's handwriting. The book is a significant rather than an important contribution to the literature of the crisis—significant because it indicates the power of great events to change an old man's attitude from ironical detachment to utter devotion, and from a smiling philosophical despair to confidence of victory.

Science

GARDEN BOOKS AND WILD FLOWERS.

My Growing Garden. By J. Horace McFarland. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.

The Mary Frances Garden Book. By Jane Eayre Fryer. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co. $1.50 net.

Old-Time Gardens. By Alice Morse Earle. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2 net.

Our Early Wild Flowers. By Harriet L. Keeler. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 net.

Now that blizzards are (or soon will be) yielding the right of way to zephyrs, books on flower and vegetable gardens are again appearing in large numbers. Their number is so great, indeed, that authors must find it harder every year to devise titles for them. In "My Growing Garden," J. Horace McFarland relates how, in his search for a semi-suburban plot, he stumbled upon an old house of hybrid design, with a couple of acres of abandoned vineyard, and how he and his family transformed this into a garden home worth writing about. Mr. McFarland is the head of the American Civic Association, and a leader in the fight for the preservation of Niagara Falls; his enthusiasm for outdoor life helps to make this book entertaining, and amateur gardeners cannot fail to gather valuable hints from the detailed accounts of his personal experiences. He is progressive, keeping up with the latest Burbank novelties, for one thing; and, unlike some who try these novelties under unfavorable conditions and then pronounce them failures, he tells what should be done to make the Shasta daisy, for example, a thing of lasting beauty. Strange to relate, he does not admire the new "rainbow corn." His chapter on Good Things to Eat proves him to be an epicure, and may tempt those of his readers who have heretofore had flower plots only to include the more delicate varieties of vegetables, such as "little beets, meltingly tender," snap beans which cause "gratitude that they came on the table without the aid of a can-opener," "carrots that hardly need to be creamed at all." Lovers of pansies will discover something to their advantage by reading pages 163-5. The book is illustrated with thirty-two beautiful sepia plates and five in colors.

Pictures in colors margin every page in the second book on our list. It is the fourth of the "Mary Frances" books, the other three being devoted to housekeeping, sewing, and cooking. In these volumes the "play-lesson idea" is developed, with a view to instilling in children a love for work and information. They are taught, while reading the story, how to prepare and enrich the soil; how to start and nurture the plants; what seeds are the best to use in a child's garden; how to make a hotbed; and various other useful things. Some of the pictures are beautiful; others are very whimsical, setting forth humanized insects and other animals as well as plants and implements.

Alice Morse Earle's "Old-Time Gardens," which first appeared in 1901, has found so many readers that there have since been three reprints of it. It is profusely illustrated, the list of pictures taking up ten pages. The spirit as well as the contents of the volume are concisely indicated in some of the chapter-heads: Colonial Garden Making, Front Dooryards, The Herb Garden, In Lilac Tide, Old Flower Favorites, Comfort Me with Apples, Gardens of the Poets, The Blue Flower Border, Plant Names, A Moonlight Garden, Roses of Yesterday. It is a delightful book for readers of culture, written by one who is conversant with literature and history as well as with gardens of various countries. It brings together a surprising amount of flower lore and information about trees, shrubs, and garden vegetables. It is a book for those who not only like to see and smell flowers, but to know all about them—where they came from, how they are esteemed in various countries, what beliefs and superstitions are connected with them, and so on. Of particular interest are the pages on poppies, lilacs, and peonies. Although Ruskin wrote that "the poppy is the most transparent and delicate of all the blossoms of the field," it is only within a decade or two that its superlative charm for the home garden has been thoroughly appreciated, thanks to Burbank's creative genius—a fact not noted by the author, who may plead in excuse that the title of her book is "Old-Time Gardens." In the long chapter on the lilac she notes the fact that in the West Indies the belief prevails that its perfume keeps away ghosts. A whole chapter is devoted to the perfume of flowers, somewhat apologetically, because "it is not deemed, save in poetry, wholly meet to dwell much on smells, even pleasant ones."

Fragrance is not a characteristic of the blossoms described in Harriet L. Keeler's delightful little book on "Our Early Wild Flowers," though there are exceptions. By early wild flowers she means those that blossom in March, April, and May in a central region extending from west of New England to the Mississippi. These spring flowers number about 130, all but twenty of which are native. To each of them the author devotes a few pages, with a picture to help identification, some of these pictures being colored plates of rare beauty. In the descriptive pages botanic information is agreeably commingled with historic and other flower lore, such as that "the old English name of Trillium was Wake-Robin, because in England the flower and the bird appear at the same time, but here our robin comes long before the trillium rises in the sunny woodlands." More than half of the flowers described here are purely forest plants. They appear before the trees put on their leaves because that is their only chance to get a little sunshine; but much of it they cannot endure. Delicacy is their main characteristic; they are "as wild as the Indian and as shy as the deer." They must, of course, as the author plaintively remarks, "die with our forests"; but she makes the very important suggestion that they might be "coaxed back into our parks. If a bit of woodland were left absolutely untouched, the leaves never raked from under the trees, since it is that more than anything else which kills the little beauties, there is no reason why they should not grow and flourish even within city precincts. Certainly every nature-lover would rejoice to know that our native flowers were protected and preserved from destruction."

These remarks are particularly commended to the attention of park officials who severely punish the picking of wild flowers, yet themselves destroy them at wholesale by ordering the dead leaves raked and burned every year. Others to whom this little book must be cordially recommended are teachers who are expected to name every blossom brought to them by children, amateur botanists, and all who love to walk in the woods.

"The American Boys' Book of Bugs, Butterflies and Beetles" (Lippincott; $2 net), by Daniel Carter Beard ("Dan Beard"), ought to afford not a little profit and entertainment to young boys whose interest in the curious ways of nature has just been aroused. It is intended to emphasize the value of a collection of insects, to give detailed information (with many drawings) of the necessary paraphernalia and the best methods of capture and preservation, and to acquaint the beginner with the most conspicuous insects and their habits. These things it does, in a style colloquial and sympathetic, as may be gathered from the heading of one of the chapters: Building a Make-Believe Insect. Comparing a Beetle with a Boy. The colored plates (all too few) are excellent; the profuse pen sketches are serviceable.

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Drama

STUDIES OF RUSSIAN LIFE.

Plays by Anton Tchekoff. Translated by Julius West. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.

Of the eight plays in this volume, only one, "The Cherry Orchard," has been published before in book form in England or America. Six of them, to most readers, will reveal the author in a new light. The seventh, "The Three Sisters," belongs in the same category with "The Cherry Orchard" and other pieces which have been described, not inaptly, as tragedies of inaction. All the dramatic works of Tchekoff—or, as Mr. West prefers to spell it, Chekhov—have now been put into English, and will repay perusal as intimate satirical studies of certain phases of Russian life and character, although the dramatic, or at any rate the theatrical, value of most of them, especially the more ambitious efforts, is altogether inconsiderable. This does not mean to imply that these last do not contain occasional passages, or situations, of definite power, pathos, or humor, but only that they are unfitted for general representation by their loose, haphazard construction, constant reiteration, excess of trivial talk and incident, manifest exaggeration, and monotonous drabness. The interest in them is almost exclusively literary and ethnical. There is no difficulty in believing that the personages depicted are more or less faithful copies of national types. In their consistency they convey a strong impression of verisimilitude. The corroborative detail, however, with which they are elaborated is often meticulous, inartistic, and tiresome. Incessant repetition does not necessarily strengthen emphasis. In this case it takes the edge from what might have been most potent and well-founded satire. No one who reads these plays can doubt that Tchekoff was a man of conspicuous talent, that he was passionately in earnest, or that, within certain limitations, he had a clear vision. He knew his Russia, the feudalistic, superstitious, patient, inert, fatalistic Russia of a few years ago—and had the courage to expose and ridicule the intellectual and moral dry-rot which perpetuated tyranny and sapped all her potential energies. He did not live long enough to recognize the signs of the awakening that he longed for.

"The Three Sisters," the most ambitious of the newly translated plays in this series—like "The Cherry Orchard," which has been discussed too frequently to require present consideration—is a semi-humorous, but bitter, study of desires frustrated and happiness destroyed by the fatalistic acquiescence in existing conditions and the utter lack of energetic initiative on the part of the persons chiefly concerned. The three sisters have but one passionate desire—on which they dwell perpetually—to go to Moscow. There is no reason why they should not do so, but they remain where they are, bewailing their fates, submitting to all sorts of trials and vexations, complicated in the end with a touch of improvised tragedy, and are left at the last, supinely miserable, pondering on the mysteries of life which they have made no effort to solve. Any attempt at a brief and intelligible synopsis of the rambling and invertebrate story would be mere waste of time and labor. The whole thing is suggestive of a collection of casual notes for an uncompleted novel of realistic impressionism. For the ordinary theatre it is utterly unfit, but the various personages, male and female, are surely and vitally sketched, and are eminently characteristic of the social conditions and the stagnant moral and intellectual atmosphere which they are designed to illustrate. The essential value of the work resides in its diagnosis of a national malady and its pungent satire.

"On the High Road," a one-act play, an early work of the author only recently brought to light, is a vivid sketch, of much more dramatic quality. The scene is laid in the barroom of a wayside inn, with its collection of tramps, laborers, pilgrims, and outlaws. Prominent in the group are a fallen merchant, ruined by drink, and a masterful thief. The piece, crudely constructed—its main incident is procured by a most unlikely coincidence—contains much vigorous and realistic characterization. Primarily it is a temperance tract, with the merchant, Botsov, as a horrible example of the degradation wrought by vodka, but every person in the group is vital and Russian. In neither of these pieces is there any intimation of the broad and rollicking humor displayed by Tchekoff in the farces which make up the remainder of the book. In these he shows a sense of the theatre as well as of character. "The Proposal" is excellent fun. An amorous land-owner, seeking the hand of his neighbor's daughter, incautiously lays claim to a strip of disputed territory, thereby provoking a lively quarrel, which threatens disaster to his suit, until the lady, who wants a husband badly, suddenly relents, only to begin a fresh wrangle, over the merits of two dogs, as soon as the proposal has been made and accepted. Here, as elsewhere, Tchekoff indulges in sharp thrusts at womankind. In "The Wedding" an unscrupulous broker, who has promised to procure a live general to grace a wedding breakfast, tries to palm off a half-pay naval officer in his place, with disastrous and comical results. This is farcical comedy of a superior order.

"The Bear" is an inversion of "The Taming of the Shrew." A disconsolate widow, living in sorrowful seclusion, is dunned so outrageously by an importunate, overbearing creditor that, in her rage, she challenges him to a pistol duel then and there; whereupon he is so impressed by her spirit and courage that he declares his willingness to let her shoot him if she will not marry him instead, which she consents to do. The humor with which the story is told makes it sufficiently plausible. "A Tragedian in Spite of Himself" is a capital skit, almost a monologue, upon the troubles of a suburbanite, and is of very general application. "The Anniversary" is a broadly farcical but effective satire upon the well-paid figureheads who reap reputation and profit from the labors of ill-paid subordinates. All these lighter pieces have an originality and point which raise them far above the level of the ordinary farce whose sole merit is ridiculous extravagance. To the average reader they will give more satisfaction than either "The Three Sisters" or "The Cherry Orchard," and they are almost as realistic as studies of Russian life.

J. Ranken Towse.

"JUSTICE."

The production last week at the Candler Theatre of John Galsworthy's play must rank as one of the most notable events of the dramatic season. Although it was first produced, with considerable acclaim, in London five or six years ago, it comes to New York at a timely moment, when interest is stirred over the question of prison reform, and although it deals particularly with English conditions, the problem which it poses is equally applicable to America.

The solution of the problem Mr. Galsworthy leaves to others. His business is with exposition, and it is significant of his skill as a dramatist and his sense of proportion that, unlike a succession of plays dealing with the same subject which have been seen during the last few years, his work is first of all a drama and not a sensational sermon. A reservation must be made concerning the third act, which, so far as the plot is concerned, might be omitted altogether, and which is really a preachment by the author against the system of solitary confinement. On purely dramatic grounds, however, though it represents a distinct break in interest, it may be justified as emphasizing the author's principal contention, that the fault is not with the individual, but with the system. In contrast with the type of prison play with which New York is familiar, where the officials differ one from another only in the degree of their brutality, in "Justice" the officials are uniformly kind and humane: they as much as the prisoners are victims of the system. Thus the prison scenes of the third act, although they interrupt the continuity of the action, serve, on the other hand, to heighten the impression, as in Greek tragedy, of characters held in the clutch of inexorable circumstance. In addition, these scenes, like the rest of the play, are admirably written, and in this particular presentation they give opportunity for some excellent acting by John Barrymore in the part of William Falder.

Falder, a junior clerk in a law firm, is discovered by his employer to have "raised" a check, and "duty to society" compels the lawyer to prosecute. The second act is the trial scene, for the admirably dignified presentation of which unstinted praise must go to the producer. With commendable impartiality the author here presents, through the pleas of counsel for the defence and for the prosecution, the humanitarian and the legal

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aspects of the case. The crime is admitted; the only plea is for mercy on the ground of temporary aberration. The defendant, a weak and nervous character, is driven almost to distraction by the suffering at the hands of her husband of a woman whom he loves. The relationship of the two has been innocent, but after a climax of brutality on the husband's part, they had decided to go together to Canada, taking the woman's children with them, and it was to obtain money for this escape that the crime was committed—a decision taken on the spur of the moment when Falder was driven half crazy by the recital of the woman's wrongs. The eloquent speech in which this plea is advanced by counsel for the defence, Hector Frome, is finely rendered by Lester Lonegan. It is, however, riddled by the curt, crisp sarcasm of the prosecuting lawyer, an advocate of the old school, effectively characterized by Thomas Louden, and by the summing up of the Judge (Wallis Clark), gruff, impartial, dwelling upon the law in the case and directing the jury to look only at the facts. The verdict is a foregone conclusion.

The third act, as has been seen, shows the effect of solitary confinement on a temperament naturally nervous and weak-willed. In the fourth act we have the finished product, after two years in jail. Falder, out on ticket-of-leave, after having tried one or two positions and been unable to endure the covert jeers of his fellow-employees, returns to the law office. The partners are willing to give him his old job, but only on condition that he renounce the woman, the thought of whom during his confinement has been his one hold on sanity. In a moving and cleverly constructed scene the author brings together the two threads of motive which have run through the play, of which the second is the hardship of the English divorce laws. The husband for long gave his wife only one of the statutory grounds, cruelty. Now he has given the other, but in the meanwhile, to provide for her children, the woman has accepted a man's protection and is therefore precluded from taking advantage of the husband's guilt. The gradual realization by Falder of what has occurred is skilfully portrayed by John Barrymore. The end comes with Falder's rearrest on the charge of having forged testimonials in applying for a position, and for this particular individual the solution of the problem is found in suicide.

It is a powerful piece of work, and the argument is presented, on the whole, with impartiality, although the author makes no secret of where his sympathies lie, and has taken to illustrate those sympathies a character that is not normal. In this brief analysis of the play no mention has been made of the principal character through whom the action is carried on, that of Robert Cokeson, the old managing clerk of the law firm, played in the finished style which makes O. P. Heggie one of the best character actors on the stage to-day. As the senior partner, Henry Stephenson gives a thoroughly authoritative performance, and the junior partner, his son, is sympathetically rendered by Charles Francis. A neat bit of characterization is contributed by Rupert Harvey as the governor of the prison in the third act. Miss Cathleen Nesbitt, as the woman in the case, and the only one in the play, brings out well, and with due restraint, the piteousness of the position. S. W.

"RIO GRANDE."

In his latest play Mr. Augustus Thomas reverts to the melodramatic manner which he once practiced with considerable success. The scene of "Rio Grande" is, as the title implies, laid on the Mexican border, and, though the present crisis does not enter into the story, the characters are members of the United States army, a regiment of which has been stationed there to keep order. So far as the fundamentals of the plot, and therefore of the characters themselves, are concerned, the military life enacted has little point. Yet, as melodrama owes much to setting, Mr. Thomas evidently chose the trappings of soldiers as a convenient means to give his work a running start. Just here he has been unsuccessful, and this initial mistake proves somewhat fatal. Perhaps it is because he fails to provide any particular military action, until the end, and that a penny-whistle sort of thing; perhaps the somnolent atmosphere of the torrid Texan town casts its spell. In any case, the play never seems to get sufficiently started to move of itself. We hardly look for just this defect in so practiced a hand as Mr. Thomas's; it is the paralysis which usually afflicts the amateur, try as he will to avoid it.

The plot, aside from the setting, bears resemblance to any one of a hundred plays of the past two or three centuries. It concerns the love of a girl compelled by circumstances to pass by one whom she fancies she loves and marry a man double her age. That the latter is in every way admirable, and in the end continues to win the single-hearted devotion of his young wife, does not prevent a tragedy, which results in the self-destruction of the unsuccessful suitor. Into this slender frame are placed, besides the principals, at least two characters who are extremely life-like, Major Lane and his wife, played respectively by Robert McWade and Amelia Gardner. Upon these personages Mr. Thomas has put much careful work, especially upon the wife, who, while exhibiting peculiarities of the sort that make for picturesqueness and vividness, leaves no doubt in the mind of the audience that she is a true woman with much versatility and tact. The Major is drawn on simpler lines. He is the man who though devoted to his wife is determined not to be ruled by her, and he also embodies the military conception of steadfast loyalty to a friend.

These characters, in fact, show more individuality than is found in the principals. Colonel Bannard, who was competently impersonated by Richard Bennett, excites merely the interest which his trying position imposes. He is an excellent fellow, and it is too bad that his wife cannot love him, is what one feels. Lieutenant Ellsworth (Calvin Thomas) is but a passionate lover with no mark to distinguish him from the average representative of his species. With Nan, the young wife, it was possible to do more, even while not departing from the stock embodiment of her plight, for the simple reason that the tragedy centres upon her and so tends to bring out the sharp contrasts of elemental moods. In this part Miss Lola Fisher exhibited some surprisingly good acting for one who had never before attempted anything so ambitious. The frivolous, charming girl of the first act gave way to the dignified, sorrow-stricken wife of the second act and to the distraught woman of the climax by stages which were as natural as they were admirable. F.

Music

A SO-CALLED SYMPHONY.

What is a symphony? The "Pastoral Symphony" in Handel's "Messiah" is simply an orchestral interlude in a choral work, or what would now be called an intermezzo; and Mozart, in his letters, refers to the "symphonies" in his songs, meaning the parts where the accompanist holds forth while the singer rests. Mozart also wrote symphonies in the modern sense of the word, that is, orchestral works in four movements, contrasting in pace and otherwise. Beethoven made definition more difficult by adding a chorus to the last part of his ninth symphony, and in this innovation others have followed him. When writing his eighth symphony, Gustav Mahler actually made the choral parts preponderate over the orchestral ones. It is, therefore, rather a cantata, or short oratorio; that is, a composition for chorus, with solo parts and an orchestral background.

Whatever one chooses to call it, this composition had its first performance in New York last Sunday evening, under very unusual conditions. It was conducted by Mr. Stokowski, played by the Philadelphia Orchestra, augmented, while the choral parts were sung by nearly a thousand trained singers, members of several choral societies in the city where that excellent orchestra has its habitat. The performance was very good; it may have been almost as good as the first one ever given, nearly six years ago, at Munich, under Mahler's own direction. Unfortunately, the game did not seem worth the candle. Mahler never intended that his eighth symphony should be sung by a chorus of a thousand. He had in mind a choir of a few hundred, but his manager in Munich saw a chance to do something big. When Mahler arrived on the scene he was annoyed at the sensational aspect of affairs and threatened not to conduct, but finally yielded to the manager's pleadings. Philadelphia took its cue from the manager rather than from Mahler, and the result was another sensational success. No fewer than seven performances were given in Philadelphia—besides the one in New York.

One might rejoice in this potency of sensationalism to give prominence to a composition if the eighth symphony happened to be a masterwork, but of all the symphonies of Mahler heard here it is decidedly the least inspired. It has often been observed of certain composers that the less they have to say the longer it takes them to say it. More than an hour and a half of valuable time is consumed by the eighth symphony, which is just about forty-five minutes longer than any composition for the concert hall should last; Dvorák (though he somewhat exceeded his own limit) once said to me that no symphony should last over half an hour. Technically, there is much that is clever and

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new in this score; but of new melody there are few traces. The vocal part is based on the old hymn, "Veni, Creator Spiritus," and, in the second, on the final scene from the mystic second part of Goethe's "Faust." Those who wish further information may profitably consult Philip Goepp's excellent translation of a pamphlet of forty pages by Richard Specht, who looks on this symphony as a masterwork. HENRY T. FINCK.

Finance

THIS YEAR'S AMERICAN HARVESTS AND THE WAR.

On Friday of last week, the Department of Agriculture gave out its first estimate of the season on the condition and prospects of the country's new wheat crop. Throughout the coming season, these monthly forecasts will be a matter of unusual interest. It is not even yet possible to say exactly how much of the country's industrial revival, during the twelvemonth past, resulted directly from the wholly unprecedented size of its two last harvests; sold as they were at unusually remunerative prices because of the European war, and contributing as they did so immense a sum to our annual export trade.

This present estimate concerns only the so-called "winter wheat crop," which is planted during the late autumn, comes above ground in March, and as a rule contributes something like two-thirds of the total American harvest. The remainder, made up of the "spring wheat crop," is not yet planted. The essential fact, brought out by the Government report last week, is that another sensationally large wheat crop, such as the country harvested in 1914 and 1915, will be impossible. Reduction, even at planting-time, of 11 per cent. from the acreage of the preceding season; a late sowing; a cold and rainy autumn, and, in many parts of the belt, distinctly unfavorable winter weather, have given the crop as a whole a poor start. Therefore the Department's estimate of 78.3 per cent. as the average condition, comparing with 88.8 a year ago, and with a ten-year April average of 87.3, caused no surprise in the grain trade.

Basing its calculations of this condition on the usual loss in planted acreage through unfavorable winter weather, and on later vicissitudes of the season, the Department makes a provisional forecast of the winter wheat crop's probable yield. The figure named is 495,000,000 bushels, which would compare with 655,045,000 and 684,900,000 for the winter-wheat yield of 1915 and 1914, respectively. It would still far exceed the crop of any season prior to 1913. In fact, up to that year, a winter crop of 500,000,000 bushels would have been considered extremely large. It did not quite reach that figure even in the great harvest of 1906. But the circumstances which, since July, 1914, have surrounded the grain trade of the whole world are so entirely abnormal that the presumed reduction in the American harvest raises some unusual questions.

What the last two harvests, in the face of foreign shortage and demands of the war, have meant to American trade and prosperity, every one knows. It has not been so often pointed out what they meant to belligerent Europe. In 1914, Europe's wheat crop was 345,000,000 bushels less than the year before, and 40 per cent. of it was blockaded in Russia. Australia's harvest was almost a failure; Canada's abnormally small. On this situation come our own crop, in 1914, with 128,000,000 bushels more than was ever harvested before, and in 1915 with a further increase of 120,000,000.

Even without war, it is entirely reasonable to suppose that a profitable foreign market would have developed for the surplus from a very large American harvest. The American grain trade itself did not think so; it was plunged in gloom and apprehension, and wheat prices steadily declined, up to the moment when Germany declared war. Instantly the German Baltic fleet tied up the Russian wheat surplus. A "war panic" over means of subsistence followed the war panic over financial credit. As soon as the ocean highway was reopened, the whole foreign consuming world, so far as it had access to our ports, became a frantic bidder for American grain.

With only an "average" American harvest in 1914, the world might easily have seen the price of wheat well above the two-dollar-a-bushel price, which it had not reached in New York since the corner of 1888, or the 68-shillings-a-quarter average *Gazette* price, which Liverpool had not witnessed since 1867. This country's abnormally large crop of 1914 put an end to such possibilities. The still larger American crop of 1915, with the better results in Canada and Australia, did more. Since last autumn, wheat has sold not very far above the normal price, except so far as blockades or extortionate freights have added a factitious cost.

Supposing, then, the country's next early wheat crop to be reduced, as the Government forecast of last week indicates, 24 per cent. from the harvest of 1915, and the spring wheat crop to be proportionately lower; what would it mean, to Europe or to this country? That would in large measure depend on the outcome of our total harvest; on results in the outside grain-producing world, as yet wholly uncertain; not least of all, on the duration of the war. There is at least this much to say of the last-named consideration—that to have planted and raised another crop, as much larger than last year's as that was larger than the crops before the war, might have been a questionable experiment. It would at least have risked the making of the farmer's prosperity directly dependent on continuance of the conflict.

Results of the world's harvest, since the outbreak of this war, have as a whole been fortunate to Europe. Prices ruled high in the first eight months of fighting; even now they stand somewhat above the ordinary figure. But they never remained for any length of time at a level prohibitive to the poor, and there was never any European famine. The history of the great Napoleonic war was strikingly different. The peace of Amiens was broken in 1803. In the first of the subsequent twelve years of continuous war, Europe gathered a satisfactory harvest. But the second year of war told another story.

In England and on the Continent rain fell almost continuously, with resultant blight to the harvest. The wheat crop of 1804 was less than half the normal size. The price in England rose during the season from the equivalent of $1.55 per bushel to $3.12. Distress was of the bitterest sort, both in France and England. Two or three later good crops helped; then, in the face of the rival embargoes of England and Napoleon, and of the declaration of war by the United States, came four successive short harvests during 1809, 1810, 1811, and 1812 in Europe. It was in August, 1812, that wheat sold at $4.84 a bushel in Mark Lane, barley at $2, and oats at $1.50.

It is scarcely probable that just this could have been duplicated, even with a short crop here in 1914; but the result would have been different from what it actually was.

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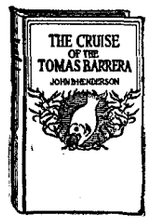

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